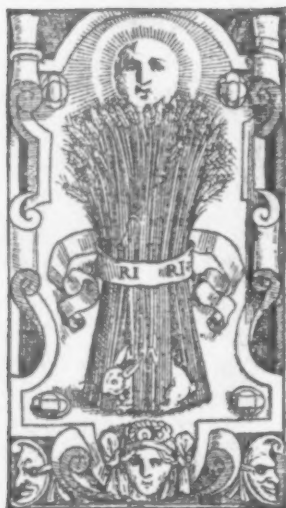


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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

OCT 3 1939



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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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PIUS XI AS LIBRARIAN

EUGÈNE CARDINAL TISSERANT

DON ACHILLE RATTI, the future Pope Pius XI, entered the profession of librarianship on November 8, 1888, when he was elected to succeed the late Don Fortunato Villa as doctor of the Ambrosiana Library. As professor of eloquence in the Milan Theological Seminary for the preceding six years, the new librarian had received no professional library training. He had, however, distinguished himself as a brilliant and profound student in the Seminary of the Archdiocese of Milan and in the Gregorian University in Rome: he had his degrees in philosophy, theology, and canon law.

Of course, the doctors of the Ambrosiana were not exactly of the same type as modern librarians; and their responsibilities did not correspond very closely with the duties which press most heavily in the majority of the present-day libraries. The famous library—founded in 1609 by Cardinal Federigo Borromeo in the interest of humanistic culture—was visited only by scholars, and the librarians had very little to do in the way of giving service to the public. Their task was to study manuscripts and printed books, and they were expected to publish old texts or important dissertations on philological and historical matters.

The head of the library, Antonio Ceriani, famous for his works on Syriac and Greek manuscripts of the Old Testament,

had taught Hebrew to Achille Ratti at the Milan Theological Seminary, and we may conclude that Ceriani had from that time a special esteem for the capacity of his former student. But, until 1888, Don Achille Ratti had published very little. In 1883 he had collaborated in a chapter of Mercalli's book, *Vulcani e fenomeni vulcanici*, on the historical earthquakes in Italy. In 1885 he had given fourteen pages, on the origin of man, to a book on theology by his colleague in the Milan Seminary, Don Federico Sala.

These two writings by the young Ratti reveal that he enjoyed the study of natural sciences. Already he had begun to be an enthusiastic mountaineer, and we know that he did not neglect, in his ascents, to record and study geological data. Son of a businessman, reared near the silk-weaving plant of his father, Achille Ratti had a very open mind, and he was to develop along lines quite dissimilar to those of his beloved master, Ceriani. He did not remain purely a man of study; he became a real librarian, a type of transition between the old and the new, as his successor at the Ambrosiana, Mgr Giovanni Galbiati, has acutely pointed out: "Achille Ratti non fu un bibliotecario all'antica maniera, ma fu il bibliotecario dei nuovi tempi o, se anche dovessimo modificare e attenuare la frase, Egli significò il passaggio tra l'antico e il nuovo tipo di bibliotecario."¹

As a student in the Theological Seminary, Don Achille Ratti had been in charge of the reading-room (1877) and was accustomed to help his fellow-students who, more than likely, were provided with very poor notions of bibliography. He judged that his chief task as assistant librarian of the Ambrosiana was to assist the visitors in their researches of manuscripts or of rare books. He endeavored to know as completely as possible the resources of the library, and, since he had an excellent memory, he succeeded so well in his efforts that many years later, when he was pope, he recorded titles with their locations in the Ambrosiana. In order to be more efficient in guiding scholars

¹ *Papa Pio XI evocato da Giovanni Galbiati* (Milan: Ancora, 1939), p. 16; cf. pp. 171 f.

and readers, he preferred not to specialize too much;² and it is a matter of common knowledge that many scholars who met him in Milan or Rome wondered at the broadness of his interest in so many disciplines.

For many years Achille Ratti was only one of the assistant librarians, and in the same manner as his colleagues he gave most of his time to the preparation of publications. Ceriani, however, inclined more and more to leave to him the contacts with the readers and the care of the material organization. As early as 1895, Don Achille Ratti had arranged that the floor above the rooms of the library should no longer be used as apartments, thus diminishing the risk of fire, which was giving great anxiety in such an old building. After the disastrous fire of 1904 in the Turin National Library had destroyed thousands of books and manuscripts, Don Achille Ratti saw to it that the Ambrosiana was made one of the most efficiently fireproofed libraries in Europe.

These changes which were effected for the improvement of the building permitted the complete rearranging of two sections of the Ambrosiana, i.e., the Pinacoteca (or gallery of paintings) and the Museo Settala (a curious example of an encyclopedical private collection of the seventeenth century which, after a long period of neglect, was now called to a new life).³ The important new arrangements were explained in an anonymous booklet which was, however, by Ratti—*Guida sommaria per il visitatore della Biblioteca Ambrosiana e delle collezioni annesse* (Milan, January 25, 1907. Pp. 160; with 90 illustrations and 2 plates in colors).⁴

² Cf. discourse of Father H. Quentin at the Ambrosiana on March 20, 1927, in *ibid.*, p. 85: "Il s'était tellement donné à ses fonctions qu'il n'avait voulu se spécialiser dans aucune matière, pour pouvoir étendre toujours la compétence du bibliothécaire. ..."

³ The Italian government, which was then without relations with the Roman Catholic Church, knighted A. Ratti on Sept. 30, 1906, "because he had earned great distinction in historical studies and had completely rearranged the Ambrosiana Library and Gallery." In 1898 a state administration had manifested its esteem of Ratti's ability when it intrusted to him the rearrangement of the library in the Pavia Carthusian Monastery.

⁴ A brief notice on the Ambrosiana Library had already been written anonymously by A. Ratti in 1893 for the official statistics of Italian libraries.

In the successive months which saw his election as librarian on March 8, 1907, after the death of Antonio Ceriani, Mgr Ratti introduced in some stacks a metal shelving and improved the reading-room, dividing it into two parts—one for readers of manuscripts and one for readers of printed books. At the same time the Ambrosiana was furnished with a repair shop for manuscripts,⁵ similar to that which Father Ehrle had established in the Vatican Library. Mgr Ratti had been interested in the repair of manuscripts since 1897, when Father Ehrle, on the occasion of the Saint Gall conference, asked him to have prepared in the family mill at Desio some thin silk tissue for the reinforcement of paper manuscripts corroded by ink.

Mgr Ratti procured for the Ambrosiana many accessions. Some were gifts—such as the libraries of Nardi and Tosi (1903), manuscripts of Trotti (1907) and Caprotti (1909); and he purchased important series of printed books and even incunabula and manuscripts, as, for example, a fine group of Christian oriental manuscripts at Munich (1910). The charter of foundation of the Ambrosiana forbade the doctors to prepare and publish catalogs of the collections, but Mgr Ratti secured other collaborators for that important work and directed the complete cataloging of the printed books, asking money for that special purpose on the occasion of the tercentenary of the Ambrosiana in 1909.

Mgr Ratti, who had visited many Italian and foreign libraries for the preparation of the *Acta Ecclesiae Mediolanensis* and had served so many scholars in the Ambrosiana, watched carefully the professional problems. It is no wonder that he participated in 1910 in the International Conference of Archivists and Librarians at Brussels.

The Ambrosiana Library depends from the Holy See and, in 1898, one of her doctors—Don Giovanni Mercati—following in the steps of Angelo Mai, became a scribe of the Vatican Library. When Father Ehrle, after directing the Vatican Library

⁵ The occasion for this was perhaps the urgent need of perfecting materials and developing skill in the repairing of old manuscripts and parchments in the archives of the Milan Cathedral, which had been damaged in 1906 by the fire of the Milan Exhibition.

for several years, was considering a successor, he, with his preferred collaborator, examined meticulously the titles of various scholars. They agreed on the person of Mgr Ratti; and when their choice was presented to Pius X it was immediately declared acceptable. On November 8, 1911, the prefect of the Ambrosiana was designated as vice-prefect of the Vatican Library *cum iure successionis*. Since it seemed inadvisable to remove him at once from the Ambrosiana, where he had been in charge a little more than four years, and since Father Ehrle was still able to work, it was arranged that for a period Mgr Ratti would divide his time between Milan and Rome, a fortnight or so in each place. This regime began in February, 1912, and continued until December, 1913, when Mgr Ratti took possession of the apartments of the librarian in the Vatican; he remained, however, the chief of the Ambrosiana until September 26, 1914.

Mgr Ratti began his actual direction of the Vatican Library at the reopening of October, 1913, but not until September 1, 1914, did he receive the title of prefect. No fundamental reform seemed necessary. The Vatican Library had been remarkably well managed by Father Ehrle, although with inadequate means. An excellent collection of reference works—about 30,000 volumes—had been formed and made directly accessible to the readers in the room, famous among scholars, *Sala di consultazione*. At the end of 1912 the reading-room for the study of manuscripts had been transferred to the same floor as the *Sala*, effecting very favorable conditions for study.

Father Ehrle, however, freely avowed that much remained to be done; he had given the best of his attention to the manuscripts and had organized a fine staff of catalogers for that preferred part of the treasures under his care. Assuredly, he did not undervalue the printed books, since he had secured for the Vatican Library so splendid a collection as the Barberini, and he had tried to rebuild the oldest collections—*Prima raccolta* and *Palatina*—on the basis of the inventories of 1686–90. But for the cataloging of the printed books the library lacked a trained staff and had at its disposition no money for extra work. The man in charge of the accessions and the reference room for many

years, although without special training, had good sense and a good hand; he was careful in observing the meager cataloging rules Father Ehrle had compiled, mostly from information received from Leopold Delisle. The cards for the books of the reference room were almost adequate. The care of the other books was officially intrusted to three assistants who were old. Only one of them had sufficient literary and linguistic competence. One was a retired artillery captain of the Pontifical Army who, fortunately, instead of writing cards, read the newspapers most of the time. With this personnel it was impossible to attempt the cataloging of at least 300,000 volumes. Of course, many of these works had once been cataloged, since every collection had its own catalog, but these catalogs were usually in book form, and the call numbers were topographical; after one or more changes of location it was impossible to trace a quantity of books, even when one knew the library possessed the titles.

Mgr Ratti understood thoroughly the situation and resolved to begin at once the work on a main catalog of all the Vatican printed books. Those of the attendants who had a tolerable calligraphy and were careful in their transcriptions were invited to give extra work for copying on cards the entries in the ancient catalogs. The effort was not conceived as a definitive one because the original entries were too lacking in uniformity, but to have all the titles in one card catalog would have been a decidedly great advancement. Unfortunately, the period of the war was not a propitious time for the undertaking; the men were anxious to procure food for their families and some of them had found more remunerative work outside the library. However, the prefect did not lose courage and, after obtaining permission from the Pope, on December 15, 1917, to turn over the library courtyard to the staff members of the lower grades for the cultivation of vegetables for their families, he asked, on February 10, 1918, that the copyists, in order to accelerate the work, be allowed to carry home every evening some of the ancient catalogs.

Meanwhile, the regular staff of catalogers, which Mgr Ratti

was able to strengthen, began to catalog the printed books which were not in the repertories. Most of these works were less important because Father Ehrle and Mgr Mercati had already chosen from the collections the best for the reference room, but there were about two hundred presses full of books. Mgr Ratti began, as preliminary work, to classify them into the broad sections of the main collection or *Raccolta generale*—philosophy, theology, history, etc.

The manuscripts had been watched with special care by Father Ehrle. The work of the repair shop, however, was too limited. Many volumes, especially the Italian manuscripts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, were heavily corroded by ink and needed special consideration. Mgr Ratti examined the manuscripts one after another and labeled those which, without previous preservative treatment, it would be imprudent to give to readers.

And, along with these manifold tasks, Mgr Ratti continued to assist scholars by personal conference and by correspondence, as he had been accustomed to do at the Ambrosiana. And also, since the Vatican Library had exhibition rooms, he proceeded to make various new arrangements of the exhibited pieces. Several thousands of volumes, containing addresses of the popes of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, were transferred from the Casino of Pius IV and displayed in the exhibition cases which had contained the small Byzantine and primitive paintings before the reorganization of the Pinacoteca. New windows were opened in the low room which housed the Mai collection; new stacks were installed under the Gallery of Inscriptions; new shelving was prepared for extra-size books. As another consequence of the war, Mgr Ratti began to extract duplicates from the various Vatican collections in view of the reconstruction of the Louvain University Library; Benedict XV had given this order on April 28, 1915.

Mgr Ratti was as good as a father to his subordinates. He was very kind. His procurement of gardening privileges for them has already been mentioned. When they were sick he visited them and generously carried to them sweets or a bottle of

good wine. On October 26, 1916, he took the nonprofessional workers of the library for a holiday in the Castelli Romani, and he wrote in the chronicle of the library that the day had been a very good one for all. In the beginning of the war he was particularly concerned about three scribes who were in Belgium, and he made every effort to secure their return to Rome. This was possible for one of them only after a stay in the prison of Freiburg in Breisgau.⁶ To me, who had been mobilized in the French army since the beginning of the German attack and from whom he awaited news, he sent on a post card, dated September 4, 1914, these very kind sentiments: "Mon bien cher Docteur Tisserant. Si cette carte arrive jusqu'à vous, qu'elle vous dise combien de fois j'ai pensé à vous pendant tout ce temps, et le désir ardent, angoissé, qui me tourment [*sic*], d'avoir de vos nouvelles; et les prières que j'offre au bon Dieu pour vous, pour vos chers, pour votre noble pays." And after that date almost every month I received post cards or letters which kept me informed regarding my colleagues and the life of the library. The librarian of the Vatican was very human!

On February 28, 1918, when I was rejoining the headquarters of the French Palestine detachment after a leave, Mgr Ratti introduced me to Benedict XV, saying: "Holy Father, here is my military attaché." And the Pope answered: "Will you then go into diplomatic service?" On April 7, Mgr Ratti was designated as Apostolic Visitor to Poland. He departed on May 19, 1919, for Warsaw, leaving the direction of the Vatican Library to Mgr Giovanni Mercati.

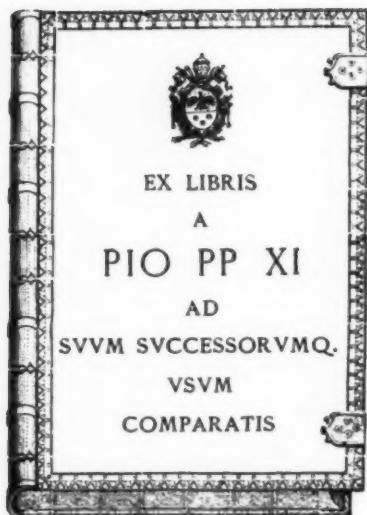
Becoming apostolic nuncio on June 6, 1919; cardinal and archbishop of Milan on June 13, 1921; pope on February 6, 1922, the former prefect of the Ambrosiana and Vatican libraries was apparently lost to the profession. But who has been once a scholar and librarian remains a scholar and librarian all

⁶ The colleagues who were in Rome during the war remember with a special feeling how sympathetic he was in his relations to another of our Belgian colleagues, Dr. Paul Liebaert, who died from typhoid fever in Pallanza on August 25, 1915. Mgr Ratti himself took care of the funeral, since the parents were prevented by the war from being present.



Pius XI

Photograph taken on the terrace by Cardinal Tisserant's niece, Marguerite-Marie Vuillemin, on March 29, 1936, when Pius XI visited for the first time the librarian apartments. *Left to right:* Mr. Castelli (the contractor who made all the important constructions in the Vatican and especially in the library); Cardinal Tisserant; His Holiness, Pius XI; Cardinal Mercati; and Cardinal Pacelli (now Pius XII).



Ex libris OF THE PRIVATE LIBRARY OF THE POPE

his life long.⁷ Professor B. L. Ullman and the librarians of distant Iowa chose indeed a most fitting phrase when they sent to the Vatican the much appreciated message: "Unus ex nobis factus est Papa." The day after his solemn entrance into his cathedral, Cardinal Ratti naturally visited the Ambrosiana and, when in Rome for the conclave, on January 27, 1922, the Vatican Library. On the evening of his election he received the congratulations of his senior collaborators; he was, however, so strongly overwhelmed by the grandeur of his new charge that he seemed to us extraordinarily distant.

Pius XI was pope, but he was librarian too, and he began his pontificate with the creation of a new library—a special library for the pope. Assuredly his predecessors had possessed books, but at their deaths these volumes were removed from the papal apartments: the library of Pius IX was transferred to St. Apollinare University (Seminario Pio), that of Leo XIII was distributed to seminaries. Pius XI judged it expedient that a collection of reference books that would be useful to the pope should remain permanently in the papal apartments. Since he was an excellent bibliographer, he purchased the best—mostly through the Vatican Library—and ordered from the Vatican printing office a very simple *ex libris*, which stated exactly what he had in mind.

The library of the pope, nevertheless, is primarily the Vatican Library, and Pius XI was exceptionally cognizant of this fact—frequently he asked for books, especially when he was preparing encyclicals. Moreover, from the first days of his pontificate he gave serious thought toward improving the service of the library. Then, as in the time of Sixtus V, the library had a great need of physical expansion—in many book presses the volumes were shelved two or three rows deep; several deposits were established in rooms which were completely apart from the library. In March and in June, 1922, the pope gave to the library the private chambers of the Borgia apartments and other rooms above them—a limited increase in space, it is true, but extreme-

⁷ Mgr Ratti wrote from Warsaw on May 16, 1919: "Certo, la nostalgia della Biblioteca e dei libri, assai più di quella del paese nativo, mi si fa da un pezzo sentire."

ly valuable because this addition made possible a fitting disposition of the Barberini archives and of other collections. Thus a third floor, above the stacks installed in 1912, was assigned to the manuscripts.

In 1928, 1930, 1933, and 1938 other additions were granted—first, the old horse stables; next, the mosaic workshop on the level of the ground floor of the library; and finally, the space under the reference room, which was constructed for the departments of accessions and cataloging and the school of library science. True, a pope who had not been a librarian would also have added space to the library—Benedict XV had already promised to give the mosaic factory, but first it was imperative to provide another place sufficiently commodious for the transference of 28,000 varieties of enamels which, in the old shop, were displayed in a wooden case of pigeonholes along the walls, 20 feet high and 250 feet long. This long-expected and sorely needed extension was given by Pius XI when he began to erect buildings in the Vatican area. He assigned to the library staff the study of the equipment to be installed in the new mosaic factory, a more compact and efficient arrangement of the enamels in steel, with drawers fitted with ball-bearing rollers.

From the very beginning of his pontificate, the zeal of the ex-librarian for his library was manifest in the department of accessions. When Pius XI heard, on April 1, 1922, that Arabic manuscripts of the Yemen were to be sold by the heirs of Mr. Caprotti, from whom he had formerly purchased for the Ambrosiana 1,600 items in the same field, he immediately recommended prompt negotiations. On April 29 the manuscripts were in Rome.

The next extensive accession was that of the Chigi Library. When he learned, in November, 1916, while he was prefect, that the Italian government was buying the Chigi Palace, he had tried without success to secure for the Vatican that library, created by Alexander VII, which contained such documents of interest to the Holy See that Father Ehrle in 1906 had already attempted to purchase it. What had been impossible in 1905 and 1916 was realized at the end of 1922, when Mr. Mussolini, in

order to elude some obligations imposed upon the state with its acquisition, resolved to give the Chigi Library to the pope, stipulating the almost unique condition that it be removed immediately from the palace. The transference of the library of 35,000 volumes consumed a little better than three weeks—from January 18 to February 10, 1923.

A few weeks later I left with Father Cyril Korolevskij for the Near East, where Pius XI believed it would be possible to gather rare books and manuscripts from the Christian families who had suffered from the World War and its sequels. Although he did not receive encouraging answers from the apostolic delegates and other prelates who had been interrogated, the pope sent his *missi dominici*, as did Nicholas V and other humanist popes of the Renaissance, with broad instructions and a provision of 600,000 lire. Father Korolevskij remained abroad more than a year and, after we had explored together the Balkans, he went as far as Warsaw and Vilna in search of historical and ecclesiastical books; I visited Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. We purchased a very important lot of archivistic documents at Constantinople and, for the Vatican Library and the Pontifical Institute of Oriental Studies, some minor manuscripts and thousands of printed books which it would have been almost impossible to find by any other method. Again in 1926, Pius XI took a similar initiative, acquiring the private collection of Archbishop Petit in Athens—a library of not a great number of items, but highly specialized in Greek editions.

Besides the collections which were added because of his sagacity, experience, and sensitivity to favorable conditions for extraordinary acquisitions, through the providential fact that Pius XI had been a librarian many more valuable items were gained for the Vatican Library. The pope used to send to the Vatican Library all the volumes presented to him—usually every six months, when the shelves of his cabinet were full. Since people knew that the pope was pleased to receive books, fine items continually flowed in. It is not temerity to think that the Marchioness Ferrajoli, born De Rossi, gave to Pius XI with keener pleasure, because he was a pope-librarian, the important

collection of her booklover husband; and also, encouraged by the appreciative reception of the pope, Prince Gelasio Caetani made arrangements for the permanent deposit of his family archives.

It is true that Pius XI did not make a special endowment to strengthen the accessions of the library, as he had several times planned; he was very scrupulous in the use of the monies given to him and would not employ for intellectual objectives what was given to him for religious purposes. But he decidedly favored the printing of new works and paid for them, leaving to the library the full cash accrued from the sales, as his predecessors had done; and he helped to acquire from several printers or publishers volumes of our series which, for lack of funds, had been intrusted to others.

Pius XI granted full freedom to his successors in the management of the library and they were able to develop the services according to the methods they preferred. But he was pleased to discuss with them the measures they contemplated and he entered into these deliberations always with a professional approach, keeping strictly in sight the advantage to the readers. Thus as early as May 3, 1922, he approved the extension of the opening on Thursdays and, in 1923, the postponement of the date of the summer closing from June 28 to July 15. Later, when he had substantially increased the salaries, he imposed on the staff new regulations, lengthening the hours of service.

The great objective for which Pius XI as librarian had worked was not forgotten. The old, untrained personnel had been replaced by hard-working catalogers who attacked the stock of uncataloged books with gratifying results. In the beginning of 1926 a very favorable circumstance arose—the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace indicated that it was ready to assist the Vatican Library to give more efficient service to the public, quite properly considering the library an important international center, where representatives of many nations meet. The idea had its inception in a chat between the late Prince Gelasio Caetani (then the Italian ambassador in Washington) and Mr. Samuel H. Church. After a thorough discussion of the

problem by the trustees, Mr. Henry S. Pritchett arrived in Rome and was received on May 10, 1926, by the pope, to whom Mr. Pritchett made the proposal to assist in the preparation of a main catalog of the printed books. The pope thought over, accepted the offer. Next year, on March 12, when there was under construction a room for the catalog and catalogers—the first special room for any department or officer, except that of the secretary and disbursing officer—there arrived, as consulting library expert of the Carnegie Endowment, Dr. William W. Bishop. Since the primary problem concerned the printed books, Dr. Bishop began, on March 14, with an examination of the printed collections. The trustees, however, had given to him very broad instructions and, with the agreement of the Vatican authorities, he soon extended his inquiry to the other services of the library, including manuscripts and incunabula. Pius XI, who had been informed the day before by Mgr Mercati of all the technical problems considered, received Dr. Bishop on March 30, and on the morning of April 2 accepted as a first measure the invitation to send one of the officers of the library to visit American libraries. On Palm Sunday, April 10, the pope received me and in twenty-five minutes gave me his instructions and counsels, both general and technical.

I insist on these details, because they show how Pius XI continued his interest in the life of the library in general and in the most minute particulars. There followed, on my return from the visit to the United States and Canada, his approval, in the main, of a scheme of organization corresponding to the probable increase of the collections and services during a long period, say, of fifty years. Of that program there have been realized the following important points: in August, 1927, the ordering of steel catalog furniture, cabinets now used for the depository catalog of the Library of Congress and the official catalog; in 1928 the installation of the Snead standard stacks in the horse stables; in 1931 new stacks in the former mosaic workshop; in 1933 (after the collapse of the Sistine Library or Braccio Vecchio) the erection of steel shelving in the reference room according to a plan approved on September 20, 1931, and the construction of a new

cataloging room; in 1936, the construction of a new repair shop for the manuscripts, of an office for the librarian, of photographic workrooms—all these constructions with convenient accessory arrangements, such as air conditioning in the stacks, three elevators, electric lights everywhere, new furniture for the reading-rooms, and new cabinets for the public catalog, etc.⁸

The personal participation of the pope in all this work was considerable, not only because he examined, discussed, approved all the projects, and accepted the responsibility of financing all the constructions and purchases of furniture, with the one exception of the air-conditioning apparatus, but also because he visited the library and watched the construction, encouraging librarians and contractors. Nobody will wonder at the frequency of the pontifical visits to the place where Pius XI had had so many pleasant experiences as a scholar and a professional man. As early as June 20, 1922, Pius XI came to the library; he examined the Caprotti manuscripts which were presented to him by some Milanese friends, a fine lot of Latin Bibles from the Vercellone collection (bought by his predecessor, but as yet unpaid for), and the most beautiful specimens of the Celati numismatic collection, acquired a few months before his pontificate. In the course of that first visit, the pontiff, stopping almost at every step and recalling many memorable conversations, did not disdain to sit for a moment in the prefectoral chair in which he had presided over the reading-room for almost five years—a gentle, familiar gesture.

I should write pages and pages if I were to report the visits which followed. Most of them were in a strictly private form, others were official—on December 20, 1922, for the unveiling of a bust of Sixtus V; on November 4, 1924, for the solemn presentation of five volumes of miscellanea to Cardinal Ehrle on the occasion of his eightieth anniversary; on December 20, 1928, for the inauguration of the new stacks, with the participation of

⁸ Pius XI did not care for the Vatican Library only; he directed the construction of a new reading-room and two-floor stacks about 400 feet long for the Vatican Archives; he housed in the Northern Gallery of St. Peter's Place the archives of the Vicariate of Rome in a three-floor steel stack, and created in 1925 a missionary library, now in the Palace of Propaganda.

sixteen cardinals; on May 17, 1929, for the audience of the members of the International Congress of Librarians; on November 28, 1937, in a more intimate way on account of his health, for presentation to Cardinal Mercati of four volumes of his minor works reprinted on the occasion of his seventieth anniversary.

Until the last weeks of his life, Pius XI watched with the soul of a librarian over the Vatican Library; although he had regularly given to it all the books he received, still he left it by will several objects for the exhibition room and for the Christian art collection, already abundantly enriched by him and completely rearranged. Those who have given their physical, intellectual, and spiritual strength to that honored profession may be proud of Achille Ratti, great librarian and great pope.

A SHORT LIST OF REFERENCES TO THE VATICAN LIBRARY

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OTHER ASPECTS OF UNION CATALOGS

MAURICE F. TAUBER

THE development of union catalogs and bibliographical apparatus for the use of scholars is one of the important changes in the field of scholarly libraries which was noted by Dean Louis R. Wilson in his Introduction to *Library trends*.

This development is particularly notable in those regions where concentrations of more than 500,000 volumes are to be found. Within the past twelve months the scholarly libraries of Philadelphia, Cleveland, Chapel Hill-Durham, Nashville, and Denver have begun this co-operative activity which involves the use of Library of Congress cards, various filming and recording mechanisms, the employment of W.P.A. workers, and the assistance of librarians and scholars not only in the cities indicated but in the regions surrounding them as well. This movement, which is destined to grow, has occasioned changes in a number of fundamental library practices and has given rise to many questions. It has also been accompanied by another movement aimed at describing the book, manuscript, and other materials of university and special libraries in such a way as to facilitate the work of scholars in locating and using unusual materials.¹

Since this paragraph was written, other union catalogs have been undertaken. A state union catalog—the first in the United States—was begun in Ohio early last year. When completed it will consist of author entries of all important books in the libraries of the principal cities of the state.² That other states have become interested in this project is indicated by the fact that Paul A. T. Noon, director of the work, has received inquiries from officials of ten states stating that they would like to establish similar catalogs for their particular areas. Like the Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, the Ohio catalog required a fairly large outlay of money.

¹ *Library trends: papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 3-15, 1936* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), p. ix.

² "Ohio union catalog," *Library journal*, LXIII (1938), 158.

The federal government appropriated \$280,000 for the project and the Ohio State Library contributed \$30,000 in funds and services, making a total initial expenditure of \$310,000.

A Nebraska union catalog, with about twenty-five libraries co-operating, has been started at Lincoln. The method of procedure resembles that outlined by the Philadelphia Catalogue; but the administrative setup is different, since it is not a private enterprise but is sponsored by four of the larger libraries of the region and is financed by the WPA. When the groundwork is completed, the catalog will be administered by the state library commission.

Many other union catalogs are being planned,³ and, as Dean Wilson predicted, the movement seems to be one which is destined to grow. Arthur Berthold's selected bibliography on union catalogs, which listed 356 entries, was issued in October, 1936.⁴ An examination of the literature since that date indicates that interest in the subject has not waned. Concerning union catalogs in general there have been such articles as Louise Prouty's on the probable relief from interlibrary loan service which will be afforded the Library of Congress by union catalogs,⁵ W. W. Bishop's survey of union catalogs⁶ and his later article on the various aspects of union catalogs as related to the resources in American libraries.⁷ Donald Coney has explained the purposes of union catalogs in general and has considered in particular the history and functioning of the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress.⁸ M. Ruth McDonald has discussed "Existing union catalog projects, with special reference to those at the Library of Congress and Philadelphia,"⁹ and John Paul Stone has start-

³ "New York union catalog," *Library journal*, LXIV (1939), 251. Questions concerning the New York project are raised by Elsa de Bondeli in "A N.Y. union catalog," *Library journal*, LXIV (1939), 386-87.

⁴ *Union catalogues: a selective bibliography* (Philadelphia: Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1936).

⁵ "Regional catalogs and the small library," *Wilson bulletin*, XI (1936-37), 401-2.

⁶ "Union catalogs," *Library quarterly*, VII (1937), 36-49.

⁷ "Resources of American libraries," *ibid.*, VIII (1938), 445-79.

⁸ "The union catalog as an aid to scholars," *School and society*, XLV (1937), 403-5.

⁹ *PNLA quarterly*, XII (1937), 30-32.

ed an inquiry into the possibilities of a co-ordinated system of regional union catalogs as a basis for interlibrary loans and co-operative book purchasing.¹⁰ John Van Male has "stressed the fact that union catalogs are tools, comparable to reference tools, which, the more definitely they are compiled and controlled for a set purpose, the more likely will they prove a good thing."¹¹

The *Report of the informal conference on union catalogs, Library of Congress, April 17th and 18th, 1936*, issued by the American Library Association late in 1936, covers many problems of union catalogs. It also contains a preliminary list of union catalogs in the United States,¹² information concerning the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress, and information on the use of printed Library of Congress cards as bases for union catalogs. D. B. Gilchrist has described the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress also and has listed directions for using that library which is "prepared to serve as a clearing house for interlibrary loans."¹³ Reports on the progress of the national union catalog were made in 1936 by Ernest Kletsch¹⁴ and in 1937 and 1938 by George A. Schwegmann.¹⁵

Of particular union catalogs much continues to be written. Paul Vanderbilt has written several articles on the Philadelphia Catalogue¹⁶ and is the author of *A brief account of the principles and formative period of the Union Library Catalogue in Philadel-*

¹⁰ Dissertation material on file at the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago.

¹¹ "Union catalogs and the point of diminishing returns," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXII (1938), 861.

¹² Mr. Berthold is at present preparing a complete directory of union catalogs in the United States.

¹³ "A central clearing house," *Library journal*, LXI (1936), 860; "Central clearing house for interlibrary loans," *Pennsylvania library and museum notes*, XVI (January, 1937), 23-26; "The union catalog—a clearing house for interlibrary loans," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXI (1937), 66.

¹⁴ *Report of the Librarian of Congress* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1936), pp. 47-53.

¹⁵ *Report of the Librarian of Congress* (1937), pp. 45-60; *ibid.* (1938), pp. 306-11.

¹⁶ "The union library catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area," in M. L. Raney (ed.), *Microphotography for libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1936), pp. 69-71; "Coordinating our libraries," *American scholar*, VI (1937), 119-21; "The Philadelphia union catalog," in L. R. Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 200-224.

phia.¹⁷ F. M. Hopkins has noted the general character of this Catalogue,¹⁸ and Arthur Berthold has told of some of the difficulties met in handling cards contributed to it.¹⁹ "Cleveland's union catalog," was the subject of an article by M. F. Wilson²⁰—this catalog was also discussed in the report of the librarian of Western Reserve University.²¹ Fannie Sheppard described the character of the New Jersey union catalog of books and pamphlets,²² while on the other side of the country J. R. Todd²³ and C. W. Smith²⁴ wrote on the union catalog of material relating to the Pacific Northwest. On the coast, Ritchie described the union catalog of the six institutions of higher education in Oregon.²⁵ A report has been made on the Nassau County union catalog of all nonfiction books found in almost every library in Nassau County, New York.²⁶ "The Bibliographic Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region," was the subject of a report in the Denver Public Library *Biennial report* for 1935-36. An article describing the Scandinavian union catalog has appeared,²⁷ and articles continue to be written about existing union catalogs in Europe—such as the catalog of the National Central Library, the *Gesamtkatalog*, the Swedish union catalog, and the union catalogs in, or planned for, Italy, Switzerland, and the Netherlands.²⁸

¹⁷ Philadelphia: Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1937.

¹⁸ *Publishers weekly*, CXXXII (1937), 1593.

¹⁹ "Editing a union catalog," *Library journal*, LXIII (1938), 222-23.

²⁰ *Library journal*, LXI (1936), 801-2.

²¹ *Annual report, 1936-1937*, pp. 69-70.

²² "New Jersey union catalogue," *New Jersey library bulletin*, VI (1937), 12-15.

²³ "Progress on the union catalog of books and pamphlets relating to the Pacific Northwest," *PNLA quarterly*, II (1937), 28-29.

²⁴ "Pacific Northwest bibliography," *PNLA quarterly*, II (1937), 9-11.

²⁵ "Union author card catalog of the Oregon system of higher education," *PNLA quarterly*, II (1937), 29-30.

²⁶ *Wilson bulletin*, XII (1937), 275.

²⁷ "Scandinavian union catalogue," *American Scandinavian review*, XXV (1937), 81-82.

²⁸ See L. R. McColvin (ed.), *A survey of libraries: reports on a survey made by the Library Association during 1936-1937* (London: Library Association, 1938).

This résumé of the literature appearing since Berthold's bibliography indicates substantially that the union catalog is not a matter only of the future, but that it is important at the present time. An examination shows rather clearly that for the most part the material falls under the generalization made by Berthold that "while a good deal has been written about the aims, implications and usefulness of union catalogs and lists, there are comparatively few articles which describe the technical processes of compilation."²⁹ This is especially true of material written about union catalogs in the United States, where the union-catalog movement is comparatively recent. However, the writings of Vanderbilt and Berthold have done much to inform librarians of the technical processes used at Philadelphia.

There remain, too, other aspects of union catalogs which have been neglected in our professional literature. Except for a few scattered references within articles or books, little has been written about the units which are auxiliary to these new tools—the contributing libraries. Also, little or nothing has been written about the use of union catalogs. What does the contributing library put into the union catalog and what does it get out of it? How can it best co-operate?

Librarians as a rule have been willing to co-operate with one another. A glance through the various *Proceedings* of the annual conferences of the American Library Association for many years back shows the formation of many committees with interests centered in some kind of co-operation. Hence the rise of union catalogs may be regarded as another trend toward co-ordination and co-operation. The late E. C. Richardson referred to the union catalog of today as "the present climax of the co-operative activity of modern libraries."³⁰

Some of the practical problems of the contributing libraries were discussed by W. W. Bishop in his article on "Resources of American libraries."

The fact is that regional union catalogs have not been carefully studied, nor for that matter has the cost of multiplication of union catalogs been worked out with any degree of success. It is a serious item of expense to com-

²⁹ *Union catalogues*, p. iv.

³⁰ *Union catalogues*, p. v.

municate to the Library of Congress the additions to the University of Michigan Library, whether recorded on Library of Congress printed cards or on cards manufactured in Ann Arbor. The actual cost of the printed or litho-printed cards, while not negligible, is not serious. The labor cost, however, is decidedly heavy and, if libraries are called upon to contribute to several union catalogs, the actual expense may well be prohibitive.³¹

And he emphasizes the need of working out carefully all the elements of cost involved in planning a union catalog, as well as of studying all questions before "adopting any general plan for local and regional union catalogs of all materials in all the libraries of a locality or of a region."³²

According to J. H. P. Pafford there are inherent difficulties in union catalogs when they attempt to include a large number of libraries of different kinds.³³ And Vanderbilt's writings testify that such difficulties have arisen at Philadelphia.

A SAMPLE LIBRARY

For purposes of discussing contributions, service obtained, and methods of co-operation for a medium-sized library participating in a union catalog such as Philadelphia's, Temple University Library has been selected as a sample. After the preliminary photographing of the card catalog, the Temple library was asked to send to the Philadelphia Catalogue entries for all new titles. It was requested to furnish one author card for each newly acquired work of individual or corporate authorship, one title card for each newly acquired anonymous work and for each new serial, and one main entry card for each newly acquired work not included in either of those categories. No cards were required for titles added to special or departmental collections when there was a duplicate copy of the book elsewhere in the library already recorded. The cards were to be fairly simple, following Library of Congress practice, if possible, and to contain neither the call number nor other data pertaining to the particular library. "We realize perfectly that these operations place an extra burden on already overworked catalogue staffs,

³¹ *Library quarterly*, VIII (1938), 472.

³² *Ibid.*

³³ *Library co-operation in Europe* (London: Library Association, 1935), pp. 85-130.

but we hope that the usefulness of the Union Catalogue itself will be sufficient to repay the effort many times over," wrote Mr. Vanderbilt. "As a cooperative enterprise, it is dependent upon your [Library] interest in its eventual completeness."³⁴

In his *Brief account . . . of the Union Library Catalogue in Philadelphia*, Vanderbilt notes that from January, 1936, to August, 1937 (18 months), 60,663 cards were contributed by the 150 co-operating libraries, and several thousand more cards were copied from those which were loaned for the purpose.³⁵ Roughly speaking, that means about 400 cards supplied by each library. Of course, this average is not meaningful, since it is obvious that many of the smaller libraries have never received 400 volumes over a period of eighteen months, much less 400 titles. On the other hand, there are several libraries which have added over 10,000 volumes per year. Recent information shows that of the 150 libraries which permitted the original photographing of their cards, 73 per cent have continued to furnish cards for new accessions "more or less regularly." And of the remaining 27 per cent—more than one-quarter of the total contributing libraries—which have not contributed cards since the original photographing, the Philadelphia Union Catalogue officials regard about one-half as being "completely dormant" libraries so far as growth in their collections is concerned. "These are mainly small special libraries—notably hospital and small club libraries."³⁶ There remain, then, approximately 13.5 per cent of the original co-operating libraries which, though growing, have not been keeping their contributions up to date.

There are admittedly several good libraries among the 13.5 per cent. Together with the dormant and small libraries, they

³⁴ *Suggestions for standard practice in supplying cards to the Catalogue subsequent to the filming of the original record by the Union Catalogue* (Philadelphia: Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1936), p. 2. The question of withdrawals has not been serious so far as Union Catalogue officials know. Some libraries may be withdrawing cards from their catalogs without notifying the Union Catalogue; most libraries have sent notices of these activities. Temple University Library sent two notices of a total of 269 withdrawals, from 1936-37 to 1937-38.

³⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 36.

³⁶ Letter dated November 28, 1938, from Mrs. Ruth W. Linderorth, consultant, Philadelphia Union Catalogue.

form an unknown quantity to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue officials. It is certain that if the Catalogue is to be considered complete these libraries must participate. Notwithstanding the understandable tendency of the Catalogue officials to avoid this aspect because they are powerless to do anything about it, since the whole project is purely voluntary from the point of view of the contributing libraries, the matter is quite serious. Apparently, these non-co-operating libraries have not realized the importance of full participation. It is reasonable to believe that the smaller technical and special libraries are the very ones which will acquire the rare books, manuscripts, or other items which are of interest to the scholar—one of the important patrons of the catalog. It would seem more serious for the Temple University Medical School Library to cease sending cards for its accessions than for the Sullivan Memorial Library (the general library of Temple University) to lapse in its contributions, since the former often secures materials which no other medical library in the city acquires. The Sullivan Memorial Library, however, has been among the libraries which have continued to contribute cards to the Catalogue.

In considering the cost of participating in a union catalog, the following figures, taken from the records of the catalog department at the Temple University Library, should be considered as merely suggestive. The costs to other libraries will vary, depending upon the type of supplies used, the manner of reproduction, the rates of pay to assistants, and the amount of interest in and care present in the preparation of cards.

Since the photographing of the catalog of the Sullivan Memorial Library, 18,974 cards have been sent to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue: 9,532 in the year 1936-37 and 9,442 in 1937-38. To arrive at the costs of preparing and delivering these cards to the Union Catalogue the following items were considered: (1) cost of cards, (2) cost of typing, and (3) cost of revising cards by a professional assistant. There are other expenses which are difficult to estimate and, perhaps, negligible in many cases, such as the cost of typewriter ribbons (if typing is the method of reproduction), the cost of typing occasional lists of

withdrawals, and the cost of wrapping the cards and sending them to the Union Catalogue.³⁷

In Table 1 is presented the itemized cost to the Temple University Library of preparing its contributions to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue for the years 1936-37 and 1937-38.

The total of \$532.70 for a two-year period amounts to little more than \$5.00 a week—not a considerable sum. And by using Library of Congress cards when possible the cost will be re-

TABLE 1

COST OF PREPARING CARDS FOR THE PHILADELPHIA UNION
CATALOGUE BY TEMPLE UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY, 1936-37 AND 1937-38

Item	Amount and Rate	Total Cost
Cards (thousands).....	19 @ \$3.80*	\$ 72.20
Typing (hours).....	760 @ \$.45†	342.00
Revision (hours).....	158 @ \$.75‡	118.50
Total.....		\$532.70

* Standard weight cards. Good cards should be used if they are to stand the wear of many years.

† On basis of Philadelphia Union Catalogue's maximum figure of 750 cards per 30-hour week (25 cards per hour). A test at Temple shows that this number is closer to 45 cards per hour if experienced typists are used, or 1,350 cards per 30-hour week.

‡ On basis of 120 cards per hour. Figure varies according to the number of cards in foreign languages.

duced.³⁸ Of course, some libraries do not send as many cards as does the Temple library. But there are others, such as the Library of the University of Pennsylvania and the Free Library of Philadelphia, which would send many more (if total accessions during this period may be used as a criterion). The total cost to the contributing libraries may, therefore, be several

³⁷ A staff member at Temple University delivers the cards without charge, but this cost should not be discounted in the case of other libraries.

³⁸ Some libraries have been using L.C. printed cards, ordering one extra card for each title to send to the union catalog. Each extra card at the present rate costs \$.016, or, if cards were secured for 19,000 titles, the amount would be \$304.00. Temple, however, secures cards for about 70 per cent of its titles from L.C. The cost of 13,300 would be \$212.80; costs for typing and revising the remaining 5,700 cards would bring the total amount to \$372.69. Pending further tests of typing speed, recommendations to use L.C. cards have been made.

thousands of dollars. One may question the practice of asking all libraries to send cards for all new titles. This duplication of Library of Congress cards or of typed cards can run into thousands of dollars. Pafford, however, considers it a necessary procedure.³⁹ But no matter what the cost, both the original grant by the government and the contributions of the libraries and individuals seem trifling if the union catalog is actually used and if society is benefited because some scholar finds the book he needs.

That the Temple University Library as a contributing library derives benefit from the Union Catalogue is demonstrated by the fact that from January, 1937, through October, 1938, staff members made 129 telephone calls to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue (librarian—6, reference—105, catalog—13, circulation—2, Business Library—3).⁴⁰ Of course, each call may have asked for information on one or on a dozen topics. The librarian, for example, asked for locations of any of the works of Amalia E. S. K. (W.) Schoppe, and of the medical journal, *Heart: a journal for the study of the circulation*. The reference librarian asked for locations of several titles that were needed by graduate students and faculty members. Several of the catalogers called for information regarding the complete names of obscure authors, dates of authors, or locations of reference tools. An analysis showed that there were 67 locations (for calls of 1 to 8 items per call), 32 not located (calls of 1 to 3 items per call), 19 partly located (calls of 2 to 12 items per call), and 11 calls from the cataloging department for authority on author headings.

Of course, it is seldom evident to union-catalog officials just what the motive is for the call. Nor can the number of calls from faculty members and students be estimated correctly, as many are anonymous. "But they are very numerous," according to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue officials, "to judge from the

³⁹ *Op. cit.*, p. 114. See also L. R. McColvin (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 585.

⁴⁰ Data from Mrs. Linderoth's letter of December 8, 1938. There were actually more than three calls from the Business Library. They were not tallied separately from the reference department until recently.

number who say they are Temple students or Professor So-and-so from Temple." This is an interesting phase of union-catalog work which needs further investigation. According to Vanderbilt: "So far as possible we try to find out with whom we are dealing in answering inquiries, though often we get only the name of the library without knowing for whom the inquiry is being made."⁴¹ Records are kept as completely as possible, but if the Philadelphia or any other union catalog is to justify its existence, it is desirable that definite records of cases be made. Mere mass figures appear unsatisfactory, just as bald circulation statistics of libraries reveal nothing definite regarding quality of use. There seems to be no valid reason why the Union Catalogue should not, at least for a time, require information of the inquirer in order to compile an accurate case history such as a physician requires of a patient. Vanderbilt mentions some of the implications of this type of information and it would be interesting to see an analysis made by him.

ATTEMPTS AT CO-ORDINATION

In order to achieve a general atmosphere of co-ordination, the Philadelphia Union Catalogue—a pioneer of its particular type in America—has tried various methods. Its officials were not sure just how far the co-operating libraries would go toward helping to co-ordinate the work. In 1937, Vanderbilt reported that the Philadelphia Union Catalogue was having printed a quantity of guide cards such as is reproduced in Figure 1. The co-operating libraries in the city were asked to place these cards in each tray of their catalogs so that the location service of the Union Catalogue would be brought to the attention of searchers at the very moment they were consulting a catalog in which the card they wanted was not to be found.⁴²

The results of this attempt at co-ordination are worth noting. Of the 78 per cent of the co-operating libraries which have been asked (to date) to place these cards in their trays, only 43 per cent agreed to do so. The remaining 35 per cent refused "for

⁴¹ *A brief account* . . . , p. 40.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 41.

various reasons."⁴³ Incidentally, the two largest contributing libraries are among those that refused.

One wonders what these "various reasons" may be. As the Catalogue officials declined to extend their comment, one must resort to guesswork. Apparently lack of sufficient help is not the reason because the Union Catalogue will furnish aid for the

A LOCATION CATALOGUE FOR BOOKS NOT
IN THIS LIBRARY

If, after exhausting the resources of this library, you still wish to locate some specific material not to be found here, inquire of the UNION LIBRARY CATALOGUE OF THE PHILADELPHIA METROPOLITAN AREA (see Bell Telephone Directory).

The Union Library Catalogue is a comprehensive card file or finding list indicating which of the 150 or more libraries in this vicinity have certain books, periodical sets, pamphlets, etc.

The cards are arranged by *author or main entry*, and not by subject; please give exact and complete information when making an inquiry.

The ULC does not borrow books nor does it make arrangements to gain access to them; it only informs you where to make further inquiry.

The service by mail or telephone is free to all.

FIG. 1

filing (this suggestion was made when Temple was approached on the matter). It is really no great hardship to the regular filer in a library to drop an extra card at the end of a tray in the ordinary course of arranging cards. Another reason may be that the libraries feel that this is giving publicity in the wrong way. Another would be that these non-co-operating libraries believe that this placement of guide cards may possibly increase the borrowing aspect of their interlibrary loan service, which, of course, is more than probably true. Or, as in the case of some libraries which already have guide cards pertaining to special collections

⁴³ Letter from Union Library Catalogue, dated November 25, 1938.

in the particular libraries, the feeling may be that the addition of another card will add to the confusion which is said to exist already in the use of catalogs. These are some thoughts which come to mind. Any or none of them may be among the "various reasons" held by 35 per cent of the co-operating libraries which have declined to use the cards.

This neglect to follow through all the possibilities of the union catalog co-ordination plan is contrary to the underlying reason for the original establishment of union catalogs; namely, as aids to scholars. It has been said that scholars will find out about the existence of a union catalog. This is probably true in many cases. However, it is relying on chance; and is, perhaps, taking too much for granted, especially in the case of advanced students or research workers. Regardless of the many other methods of publicity, these guide cards seem to be an excellent means for calling attention to the Philadelphia Union Catalogue. It will be interesting to watch how many of the, as yet, unasked 22 per cent of the total contributing libraries will be willing to place these cards in their catalogs.

In addition to the placement of guide cards in catalog trays, the Philadelphia Union Catalogue has also tried other methods of publicity. Folders have been distributed to academic and professional workers of all kinds. Articles have been written for books, periodicals, and newspapers. If these means increase the use of the Union Catalogue, and, eventually, the use of materials in libraries, how may the libraries react? The traditional ideas concerning library co-operation would seem a reasonable basis for assuming that full service would be afforded. The experience of the guide cards, however, makes one wonder. The Philadelphia Union Catalogue itself is not sure, and protects itself with the following statement:

Please bear in mind that many of these libraries which are covered by the Union Catalogue are not open to the public at all, and that books can be borrowed from relatively few of them. All negotiations for the use of books must be made with the authorities of the libraries concerned.

A policy such as this throws the problem back upon the shoulders of the co-operating libraries, of course, and raises sev-

eral questions. Will every library having a particular rare book allow it to be used on its premises? A hospital, club, or company library may definitely refuse because of limited space or rules. Many nonpublic libraries may consider it an infringement upon their privacy. Will the library send the book on interlibrary loan? While many libraries, such as those connected with colleges or universities, are quite willing to do this, it is evident that some of the special and club libraries recorded in the Philadelphia Union Catalogue are not. Without question, interlibrary loan service requires a great deal of time, effort, and responsibility, as well as expense.

One might suggest that these libraries which have placed their cards in the union catalog did so with the understanding that they were making public their holdings, a procedure which might eventually lead to the use of the materials. But, according to one informant, many of the librarians agreed to co-operate without knowing what the purpose or aims of a union catalog were. If these particular librarians have charge of any unique materials they may, in time, come to know how a union catalog functions. Undoubtedly the whole movement of union catalogs—federal, regional, and local—will have some effect on the administrative procedures of libraries. As a result of the new movement, American libraries may be better co-ordinated, and many special and private libraries may assume a quasi-public atmosphere.

RELATIONS TO CATALOG DEPARTMENTS

A policy which affects the contributing library as much as the union catalog itself is the revising of entries by union-catalog officials.⁴⁴ There can be no criticism of this effort of the union catalog to maintain uniformity in its files. Moreover, the revisions actually bring the entries in line with approved cataloging practices.⁴⁵ However, it is suggested that some arrangement be worked out whereby a report to the contributing li-

⁴⁴ Paul Vanderbilt in L. R. Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 217.

⁴⁵ Of course, the Union Catalogue cross-references such changes.

brary will be made when revisions of this kind are necessary. In this connection, Vanderbilt says:

In so far as we can make written reports on inquiries, our staff can in the future indicate where in the original library catalog the book is to be found, in the event that the entry there is different from the entry in the Union Catalog. . . . There does not seem to be any way out, and we can only hope that where we have changed entries we will be right and can in some cases persuade the original libraries to add the information which we have discovered to their cards.⁴⁶

Knowing the vast amount of detail involved in a union-catalog project, one hesitates to criticize this angle. However, it seems obvious that the hope of the union catalog to increase its service and value will be realized only in so far as the catalog pleases its users. If the revisions by the union catalogers make it difficult to trace books in the original libraries, there is likely to be dissatisfaction, and possibly a display of contempt, on the part of the user for the union catalog. If the contributing library refuses to change its entry after being notified by the union catalog—through a list service of some kind—one possible solution to this difficulty might be by adding a note, on the back or bottom of the card or on an extra card in the union file, giving the entry as it appears in the original library. Unless there are many entry changes, this would not be much of a task. Of course, if the changes are numerous, a procedure similar to the one suggested should be an essential part of the union-catalog process.⁴⁷

Undoubtedly, the growth of union catalogs has its reverberations in the catalog rooms of libraries.

There is one matter in them all which is of supreme concern to catalogers. Photography is bound to be the chief agent in any of these schemes [union catalogs]. Are your cards so well made that you are willing to have them photographed and the resulting copy seen by thousands of readers? . . . Union

⁴⁶ *Loc. cit.*

⁴⁷ The Union Catalogue officials are alive to their problem. Possibly another solution is through the series of publications to be issued by them. The first of these has appeared—A. B. Berthold, *Russkie kollektivnye zagolovki* (Philadelphia: Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1939). This work may be regarded as an attempt to aid catalogers in their problem of changed headings. The numerous cross-references in the list take full account of changes in entries that have been made.

catalogs are sure to be based on local catalogs, and that means on the work of each cataloger. Brains plus training will still be the chief equipment required of a cataloging staff.⁴⁸

Miss Margaret Mann also emphasizes the individual cataloger's responsibility:

Fundamentally all the work depends on the ability of the cataloger who makes the original entry. Mechanical devices—which have occupied so much of the time of the Conference—are of enormous value, but only in reproducing the work of the first cataloger. The basic work can never become mechanical, but catalogers must realize that mechanical reproduction of their work is definitely established for the future. Ever since Library of Congress cards became generally available the entire cataloging system has changed its structure. Duplicating material is now no longer a chief task of the cataloger. The leading problem is to make a correct entry, and so long as that continues the cataloger himself is still a necessary part of the whole process, and he cannot be relegated to any minor place nor considered out of date in the library world.⁴⁹

Since the work of the cataloger is so important to the union catalogs, there should be a closer relationship between the two than has existed. In much the same way that Library of Congress cards have helped to standardize cataloging procedures, union catalogs may further stimulate this tendency. One must remember, however, that certain unorthodox methods of cataloging may be better suited for certain types of libraries, even if they are members of union catalogs.

USE OF UNION CATALOG

Much money has gone into union catalogs. One wonders if they will perform the service their sponsors have promised. They certainly are in the experimental stage, and perhaps librarians should wait and allow those in existence to be "experiment stations" until it is demonstrated that new ones are necessary. Individual contributing librarians have doubtless wondered how the existing ones will continue. At the Informal Congress on Union Catalogs, Professor Charles W. David of Bryn Mawr College made the pertinent remark that "all this

⁴⁸ Bishop, "Union catalogs," p. 49.

⁴⁹ *Report of the informal conference on Union Catalogs, Library of Congress, April 17th and 18th, 1936* (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1936), p. 28.

concern with union catalogs and all the efforts to provide them are solely in the interest of scholars using research materials—they are in no way necessary to the operation of each library or to the convenience of its administration."⁵⁰ The feeling that union catalogs were important enough to "gamble on" future support was also stated at this time. Professor David intimated that the "usefulness and value" of the union catalog would produce necessary support.⁵¹

The problem of upkeep is obviously a most important element in union catalogs. A suggestion has been made that scholars using research equipment might be asked to carry part of the expense, if government subsidies and private philanthropy fail to help adequately. Vanderbilt says:

Our principal hope for the tangible benefit of the Union Catalog lies in the possible stimulus to subject bibliography on the part of librarians, secretaries, and others. There are probably fifty thousand pieces of work begun in Philadelphia every day which would be done with greater perspective, by more practical methods, and with greater economy if, first of all, a bibliography of the material at hand were compiled and the people took the trouble to inform themselves before commencing work on the problem.⁵²

If people could be convinced that bibliography is an essential forerunner of every piece of work, it seems that the total number of people engaged in such jobs could be of direct influence in getting sufficient subsidies from the municipal, state, or federal government. Or, if the research equipment of a union catalog results in increased efficiency, it seems reasonable that its users who require the services of a reference assistant for several hours should pay fees.⁵³ Medical or legal clinics have not been reluctant to ask fees for similar services. Any funds so raised could be used to aid libraries which have been delinquent in submitting entries owing to lack of help (a reason which several have advanced).

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

⁵² "The Philadelphia Union Catalog," in L. R. Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 220-21.

⁵³ There are, of course, obvious reasons why a fee system might not work. The very fact that the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress offers free service would send scholars there. Too, our free public library service (of which union catalogs seem a part) would be another reason for not charging.

A study of ten-months' use of the Philadelphia Union Catalogue revealed that there were, on an average, 33.5 items inquired about per day. On the basis of a five-day week, this would be 8,710 items inquired about during the year. Scholars' vacations seem to influence the use of the Catalogue—the winter months are the high points; there is a decided falling-off in the spring; and June and August are the low points for requests.

The telephone seems to play an important part in the use of the Catalogue, which is situated rather inconveniently on the fourth floor of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania Building. An official writes:

The Union Library Catalogue, because of its location, has always adopted a policy of encouraging mail and telephone inquiries and discouraging personal consultation. I think any statistics on the number of users per day must be given from the angle of the number of items searched for per day. This number can be only approximate because of the variety of requests. There are, on the average, from 30 to 40 items searched a day. The phone call takes care of about 70 per cent of these. The actual proportion of phone calls to mail and personal visits is about eight to two, but the mail requests are usually compilations of several requests—as from reference departments of college libraries—or longish bibliographies. The personal requests range from a person looking for one book, to research workers checking long bibliographies of several hundred items.⁵⁴

The Philadelphia Union Catalogue is, therefore, decidedly handicapped in offering full service to potential consultants. For example, the 129 calls from Temple University might have been considerably increased if the Catalogue were located on the university campus. On the other hand, before drawing any conclusions from the data in regard to Temple's use, one must consider that this particular university has a small graduate school and its demands for research at the present time are doubtless limited.

If the plan for making the Philadelphia Union Catalogue the

⁵⁴ Letter dated November 28, 1938. It may be mentioned that the telephone has not been entirely satisfactory. Wrong information is difficult to check by telephone, individuals get impatient, and other factors enter. But Mrs. Linderoth writes: "The very fact that it takes a phone call, a letter, or a rather arduous climb to reach us, tends to eliminate many requests which are not 'union catalog' material, but which can more readily be answered by a reference department of a library."

nucleus of a community bibliographic center materializes, it is reasonable to believe that increased use will result. This plan, prepared by a Bibliographical Planning Committee⁵⁵ which is composed of officials of the Philadelphia Union Catalogue and of the University of Pennsylvania, would locate the Catalogue in the library of the latter institution. Then its physical location, which at present necessitates contact almost entirely by telephone and mail, would no longer be a handicap. The idea is a plausible one, since the University of Pennsylvania officials plan to build a new library building, and the Union Catalogue is in search of a permanent home. In addition to studying ideal specifications for a building at the University of Pennsylvania to house a general library for the institution as well as a central library agency, the Committee is also interested in a co-operative storage plan, an interlibrary loan plan, a co-operative cataloging plan, and a plan for developing and correlating the materials of the central library at the University of Pennsylvania with respect to the community plan.

Since its beginning, the Philadelphia Union Catalogue, like other union catalogs in the country, has been co-operating with the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress by sending trays regularly to Washington for checking. Libraries should be convinced of the true significance of this important function of a union catalog. In 1932, Howard S. Leach, writing of the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress, commented:

This matter of contributions by each of us individually from our respective libraries is one of great importance. It likewise should be a matter of pride for a given library to be represented in this great catalog. One of the astounding facts printed in Dr. Putnam's 1930 report is the fact that they have a separate list of 643,750 items of non-located books. This means that this huge number of books have not so far been located in any library in the United States.⁵⁶

A letter dated January 31, 1939, from Mr. George A. Schwegmann, states that this number of 643,750 items has not been

⁵⁵ "Proposed investigation of library resources, activities and opportunities in the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1938" (typewritten manuscript).

⁵⁶ "Our duty to the union catalogs," *Library journal*, LVII (1932), 987-88. The question has been raised, and rightfully so, as to whether or not this national union

reduced to any extent. Thus union catalogs may be the means of locating rare or limited editions of books or monographs which are often the very items sought by scholars and research workers. In the 1937 *Report of the Librarian of Congress*,⁵⁷ Schwegmann noted that the Philadelphia Union Catalogue may help in locating additional copies of rare materials which are more available than those for which they now have records. Too often, recorded copies of books are in libraries which do not permit interlibrary lending.

Officials of the Philadelphia Union Catalogue have not yet been able to follow through any co-operative purchasing plan among its contributing libraries.⁵⁸ They may be able to present some interesting data on this point later. Extension and facilitation of interlibrary lending will doubtless have some effect on purchasing in the future. If they do not, something must be radically wrong with the basic assumption concerning the establishment of union catalogs as a medium for co-operation.

SUMMARY

In summary, it may be said that the value and service of a union catalog—whether in Philadelphia, Cleveland, or Lincoln—will be determined largely by the amount of interest and co-operation given it by the contributing libraries. While the costs for contributing may or may not seem considerable, depending on the individual library, it must be remembered that these are continuing costs. Benefits derived from the union catalog may, in time, tend to balance these costs, or even make the original costs seem trifling. Studies of use and costs by other co-operating libraries are recommended.

Perhaps those who have plans for additional union catalogs should wait and weigh the value of the work being performed by existing projects. It may be desirable that union catalogs of the future be concerned with special subjects, such as the

catalog is sufficient for all purposes in the United States for supplying information to scholars. Telephone and airmail service certainly do not make Washington inaccessible from any point.

⁵⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 47.

⁵⁸ Vanderbilt, *A brief account . . .*, pp. 39-41.

union catalog of medical works in Chicago libraries, etc. More attention might be given to the possibilities of regional union catalogs.

Several deficiencies of the union catalog in Philadelphia have been mentioned. These may or may not be present in other union catalogs. They do need correction or refinement if efficient functioning is the purpose. The contributing libraries, of course, can help tremendously by good cataloging. An exchange of more information between the union catalog and the catalog departments of the libraries may be beneficial. For full effectiveness, each contributing library should be checked frequently as to cards for new additions and cards or notices of withdrawals. Librarians who have refused to co-operate in various ways may well study the situation to see if their patrons could not use the services of this tool. The individuals who comprise the staffs of the libraries—not only the catalogers, but the reference and circulation librarians as well—should have a part in the total picture of the union catalog, and transmit to it not only their enthusiasm but their co-operation, the use of their resources, and all the service which is implicit in its use. For the union catalog should be more than just a finding list; it should be a means of actually getting a desired book or a reproduction of it into the hands of the person needing it. As Professor A. H. Lorentz, at the session of the League of Nations Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in 1927, said: "The end to be attained is that no book or manuscript should be out of reach—that we should be able to know where any book is to be found, and how it may be made accessible as easily as possible. You may think that is a little thing, but in reality it is a great thing."

LIBRARIANS AND ARCHIVES

J. M. SCAMMELL

LIBRARIANS in the United States have not only an academic interest in archives as a related field but also often a practical interest because, in a number of states, libraries are charged with the custody or actual administration of large deposits of noncurrent state records.¹ If for no other reason librarians should be informed regarding some of the recent developments in this allied field in which progress of late has been revolutionary.

In 1912, Waldo G. Leland spoke of the United States as having outdistanced completely other countries in the development of library science but as being immeasurably behind them in all that pertains to archives. He then predicted:

The time will come when we shall awaken to a realization of their value and to the fact that they must underlie a most important part of our history, and then we, or our descendants, will look with dismay upon the results of our negligence and will wonder how we could ever have been so indifferent to historical interests of such a vital character.²

As early as 1909, Dr. Leland had predicted an archival awakening. In 1934, Dr. A. R. Newsome noted the beginnings of it. By 1935, Dr. Theodore C. Blegen considered it time to take notice of the problems involved. In December, 1936, the Society of American Archivists was founded; and a year later—

¹ C. M. Gates, "The administration of state archives," a paper read before a conference of members of the Society of American Archivists, the Historical Records Survey, and the American Historical Association at the annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association at the University of Washington, Seattle, December 30, 1937. This session was sponsored by the Historical Records Survey, a federal project of the WPA engaged, since February, 1936, in listing source materials for American history. Dr. Gates's paper was printed in *Pacific northwest quarterly*, XXIX (1938), 27-39 and reprinted in *American archivist*, I (1938), 130-41. The states enumerated by Dr. Gates are Arizona, Connecticut, Illinois, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Virginia.

² "Some fundamental principles in relation to archives," *Annual report of the American Historical Association for the year 1912* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1914), p. 264.

in January, 1938—the *American archivist* made its debut.³ Here at last was a tardy appreciation of a need which had been recognized and acted upon by the ancient Egyptians, Chaldeans, and Phoenicians.⁴ It is an ironical comment on American historical scholarship that it should be making a more revolutionary change in its conceptions of ancient history, based upon "Records which defy the tooth of time,"⁵ than it has been making in its conception of American history as a result of the use of American original source materials; and that it should be holding in low esteem the very ancient historians who appear to have made the greatest use of the archives of their time.⁶ But we are less concerned today with the errors of our past than with the progress which has been made with cumulative rapidity since the beginning of this century.

The first state to organize a department of archives was Alabama, some thirty-six years ago. In 1902 this state made provision for a department of archives and history, with a rather loose supervision over the libraries in the state.⁷ In 1921 the state of Illinois established an archives division of the state library, which was organized the following year.⁸ The new Illinois Archives Building was opened in October, 1938; and the occasion was celebrated by holding a meeting of the Society of

³ J. P. Boyd, "Recent activities in relation to archives and historical manuscripts in the United States," in Society of American Archivists, *Proceedings* (Urbana, Ill., 1937), pp. 13-20; "Announcement," *American archivist*, I (1938), v.

⁴ A. J. Alfaro in an address to the members of the Society of American Archivists at Washington, D.C., June 18, 1937 (Society of American Archivists, *op. cit.*, pp. 69-74).

⁵ Especially the Amarna tablets of which an account, together with excerpts, is given in Sir Flinders Petrie, *A history of Egypt* (7th ed.; London: Methuen, 1924), Vol. II. The Hittite records found at Bogaz Kein and recently translated are another case in point.

⁶ Otto Eissfeldt suggests that the writings used by Euhémèrus were those tablets lately found at Ras-Shamra (Ugarit) and that the inscriptions used by Sanchoniathon were those of the inhabitants of the Amanus region. The reviewer believes that Sanchoniathon used the records of Thoth (*Syria*, XV [1934], 297. Cf. also *ibid.*, XI [1930], 11).

⁷ State of Alabama, *General laws: 1900-01*, pp. 126-27; *Alabama code of 1928*, chap. 33, art. 1, sec. 1399, p. 282.

⁸ State of Illinois, *Blue book*, 1927-28, pp. 442-44.

American Archivists in the building.⁹ Another recent development of interest to librarians is the provision in the Arizona laws of 1937 for a department of library and archives of the legislative branch. It consists of a state legislative bureau, a library division, and a division of Arizona history and archives.¹⁰

While the common American practice of confusing archives with historical manuscripts, and archival purposes and functions with those of historical societies, libraries, and museums is not sound in principle and may lead to mischievous results, it is a practice which is firmly grounded in custom and often embodied in the laws of the states.¹¹ And neither the habits of our people nor the laws are easy to change, so that having this system with us is another reason why librarians and historians must take an active interest in archival problems and progress. The best practical safeguard against mischief arising from this confusion lies in an understanding of archival principles by those other than trained archivists who may have to administer public records.

While the value of public records to historians and other social scientists can hardly be overemphasized, their primary value is to the government which created them to be used in the transaction of public business—"Archives were not drawn up in the interest of or for the information of posterity."¹² The modern state is an increasingly complex organization whose efficient operation demands that its records be organized in such a way that any desired information from them may be produced (or reproduced) quickly. "In actual practice it has been found that the older Illinois records are used more frequently from the legal than from the historical point of view."¹³ The noncurrent records of an office may be regarded as the memory function of

⁹ *American archivist*, II (1939), 125.

¹⁰ State of Arizona, *Session laws of 1937*, chap. 32, sec. 1, p. 84.

¹¹ *Third annual report of the Archivist of the United States, 1936-1937* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 5-6.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 5, citing Hilary Jenkinson's *A manual of archive administration* (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1937).

¹³ State of Illinois, *loc. cit.*

the office which created them; and a state without an archives system will some day be found wandering helplessly in a bewildered state of amnesia. In order that they may serve effectively as a memory for the government, archives must be organized according to the principle known as "provenance," i.e., according to the manner in which they were created, so as to reflect the footprints and fingermarks of the processes through which public business is transacted. Just as it is an axiom of the police that nothing at the scene of the crime must be disturbed until technical experts have recorded all available evidences from which the actions relating to the crime may be reconstructed, so it is a basic maxim among archivists that the original groupings and arrangement of records must be preserved as they existed when they were completed. Without this arrangement the records are so many documents, but they do not constitute archives in the technical sense; for "archives consist of one or more *groups* of documents no longer in current use, each group of which has accrued in the custody of an individual or a department in the ordinary course of business, and *forms an organic whole, reflecting the organization and history of the office which produced it.*"¹⁴

It is becoming more difficult to retain state archives in this complete sense. The increasing complexity of the organization of the state and the enormous growth in its business without a corresponding addition to its personnel and office space has created serious problems of storage and serious obstacles in the way of locating desired information among older records. In some offices the weight of the files threatens the carrying capacity of the floors. The surplus records have to be destroyed or relegated to such storage spaces as may be found, regardless of their suitability. In Illinois, files only a score of years old have been found completely destroyed by mildew. The cost to the state of not caring properly for its old records is probably far greater than the cost of organizing and maintaining a modern archival system. Losses accrue through the lack of data neces-

¹⁴ Charles Johnson, *The care of documents and management of archives* (London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1919), pp. 8-9. Italics mine.

sary to clear titles, dispose of claims, disprove forgeries, prevent or promptly settle legal disputes, and through innumerable other ways. A centralized state archives system is coming to be recognized as a necessary economy.

The advantages of a central repository for the noncurrent records of all state agencies are numerous and important. Filed scientifically, data required by any particular office are more certainly and more expeditiously available than if maintained in the custody of the office itself. Sometimes nominal custody may mean little—the required records may be stored in some inaccessible vault or warehouse far removed physically from the office which supposedly has them under its control. In a modern archives these records can be safeguarded against destruction from fire, water, damp, vermin, vandals, thieves, and other hazards to their very existence or usefulness. There they may be repaired uniformly and well, and so maintained in good order. Copies of desired records can be made quickly, accurately, and economically. Not only do the offices of origin or other offices have quicker access to the information contained in their records, but they are relieved of the burdens entailed by responsibility for their custody, among which that of furnishing information in response to requests from sources outside the government and very often from outside the state is not among the least.¹⁵

Very few of our American states have provisions for the care and administration of their archives such as are common in Europe and Canada. In a revision of its archival laws immediately after the World War, Austria included a prohibition

¹⁵ State of Illinois, *loc. cit.* In Iowa, over a period of years, the number of calls for information from without the state was only slightly less than the number from within: 23,189 from outside against 23,488 from within. It is interesting to note that during the same time the archives provided 6,208 certified copies of documents under conditions which required no fee and 8,359 copies for which fees were paid amounting to a little less than \$4,000. The distribution of the calls for information from state offices is of interest: of a total of 1,453 in one year, 1,186 were for information on financial matters—854 from treasurer, 162 from auditor, 66 from controller, 66 from insurance department, and 38 from board of control; while only 121 calls were from agencies concerned with cultural matters—106 from the superintendent of public instruction, 8 from vocational education, and 7 from history (State of Iowa, *Twenty-second biennial report of the Historical, Memorial, and Art Department of Iowa, 1932-1934*, pp. 11-14).

against the export of its public records.¹⁶ The new constitution of October 1, 1920, placed authority over the state archives in the hands of a national *Archivamt*.¹⁷ Three years later¹⁸ the government set up a very rigid control over all public records: no changes or destruction could be authorized without the permission of the *Archivamt*, and local archives could not even acquire new holdings without permission. These provisions were even extended to such private archives as had public value. It was made the duty of every citizen to assist in locating and examining archival collections. In 1936 the Ministry of Education in France organized a commission composed of members of the bar, public officials, and archivists to prepare the text of new legislation for the better care of public records.¹⁹ Its report resulted in a decree which provided that the title to all government records, including those of local governments and agencies, was inalienably vested in the French Republic—even those which had been long in the custody of societies, museums, or individuals—with the special provision that where public records had been acquired in good faith a declaration of their possession must be made, but the possessors might be allowed to retain custody of them or to transmit the custody of them to others subject to the public title; and that such documents if repossessed by the government would be taken over with suitable indemnity paid to the possessor on the basis of long custody in good faith. All public records whenever recognized to be useless for the transaction of public business must be transferred to the state archives; and such records may not be destroyed by local officials without the sanction of the national archivist. All records earlier than 1836 must go to the national archives within six months of the decree of July 21, 1936. The national archivist or an inspector from his staff must make

¹⁶ Jakob Seidl, "Archivalienschutz in Österreich" [Governmental protection of archives in Austria], *Archivalische Zeitschrift*, XL (1936), 149-63. The decree was dated December 28, 1918.

¹⁷ *Ibid.* (art. X, sec. 13, and art. XXXIV, sec. 14).

¹⁸ *Ibid.* (Act of September 25, 1923).

¹⁹ *Archives et bibliothèques*, II (1936), 163-68, 238-40.

periodical visits of inspection to all local archives.²⁰ The recently created little Baltic state of Esthonia with a population of only a little more than a million souls in 1935 passed an archival law which provides for an intelligent program superior to those of many larger and wealthier states.²¹

The beginnings of an awakening to the importance of archives in the United States has been noted briefly. The programs of the American Historical Association and the American Library Association have recently received reinforcements not only through the Society of American Archivists but also through such units of the Works Progress Administration as the Historical Records Survey and the Survey of Federal Archives, to say nothing of various local projects performing specific tasks in related fields. As the Survey of Federal Archives has ceased to exist as an independent nation-wide project and its work is being continued in about one-half the states by the Historical Records Survey and co-ordinated in the others by the same agency, its work will be included for convenience and simplicity in the discussion of the role of the HRS (Historical Records Survey).²²

The undertaking is a formidable one. The Historical Records Survey workers, approximately 7,150 in number, have been engaged in the preparation of tools for historical research in the form of inventories, guides, check lists, indexes, calendars, and

²⁰ J. de Font-Reaulx, archivist of the Drôme, discusses the effects of this decree on provincial archives in *ibid.*, pp. 242-43. The state of Indiana, in its *Acts of 1935* (pp. 1035-37), has adopted a similar provision for the inspection of local archives (*American archivist*, I [1938], 34).

²¹ Review of "O. Liiv (ed.), *Arhiivinduse käsiraamat*, I-II (Archives manual). 2v. Tartu, 1933-1936," in *American archivist*, I (1938), 44-46.

²² The Survey of Federal Archives, sponsored by the National Archives and administered by Dr. Philip M. Hamer of that agency, was concerned primarily with a survey of the records of the federal government outside the District of Columbia; while the Historical Records Survey, under the direction of Dr. Luther H. Evans, undertook to survey all other public nonfederal records, with special emphasis on county records, in the states, together with nonpublic records and other original source materials. In July, 1937, the SFA was discontinued as a federal project. The HRS then undertook to continue the work of the SFA in states in which the work remained incomplete or in which local projects were not organized and to co-ordinate its work in those states in which local projects were set up; and to this end Dr. Hamer was appointed an associate director of the HRS.

similar volumes. The first and major objective of the Survey has been to make and publish inventories of the public archives of the 48 states, the 3,066 counties, and the cities, townships, villages, and special districts of the country. In addition, the Survey has undertaken the preparation of research tools relating to the archives of churches and other organizations of a religious nature, as well as manuscript collections in historical societies, libraries, and private hands. Check lists of the books, pamphlets, and broadsides printed within the present boundaries of the United States prior to January 1, 1877, or prior to January 1, 1891, in eight states where the history of printing had a later beginning, are being compiled. In connection with this task the Survey has noted thousands of new titles and new locations for the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress. In a few places, as in Oklahoma, the Survey has contributed to the development of regional union catalogs. It also has made substantial contributions to the Union List of Newspapers. An annotated bibliography of American history similar to the famous Larned work will be published within the next year. In various localities the Survey has also had in progress a number of miscellaneous experimental tasks—such as listing early American portraits in the New England states, New York City, and South Carolina; preparing bibliographies of various kinds; listing maps and atlases; and making special indexes.

Chief concentration of the Survey has been upon the production of local archives inventories. The inventory of county archives alone will be a mammoth set of volumes of approximately 300,000 pages and the inventory of town, city, and village records will be equally extensive. As of July 22, 1939, the Survey had published 247 volumes comprising a total of 25,170 mimeographed pages, exclusive of the 196 volumes published in the Survey of Federal Archives series. Final inventories for 234 counties and 27 towns had been issued, and approximately 50 more county and town inventories were either being mimeographed or had been approved for publication. The latter will probably be issued within the next three or four months. Sev-

eral hundred additional inventories are in final draft form but have not as yet obtained approval for publication.

Of what do these inventories consist? Never have inventories been prepared on a broader, more flexible basis or of so comprehensive a scope as those of the HRS. The entries, numbered serially throughout each county or town volume, are arranged under the offices in order of their importance and according to their relations to show the progressive flow of transactions and within these offices in accordance with the classification of business and their mutual functional relations. The arrangement itself reflects the practices in local government. The individual entries give the title (with variations, if any), inclusive dates, quantity, contents, arrangement, indexing, size of volumes or containers, and the general location. Where records of the same series have been broken up by changes in organization or in practices, the sequence is restored by a system of cross-referencing. The careful subject index is supplemented by a chronological index which shows in a convenient form developments in the keeping of public records.

The body of the inventory is preceded by a series of explanatory essays which include a historical sketch of the county or town; the governmental organization and records system; the housing, care, and accessibility of the records; and a list of abbreviations, symbols, and explanatory notes. Each office in the body of the inventory has also an introductory explanatory essay. The materials generally used as a basis for these historical and legal essays are the constitutions and laws, and data extracted from the records themselves.

The quality and reliability of these inventories have been subjects for remark by historians everywhere who have examined them.²³ Only a few citations need be made to establish this striking fact that scholarly work of the very highest order can be done and is being done by relief labor under the WPA. In reviewing an inventory of the archives of a number of counties

²³ Early remarked by the archivist of the University of Virginia Library (*Seventh annual report, 1936-1937*, pp. 2-3).

in North Carolina (a volume published by the North Carolina Historical Commission) Dr. Theodore C. Pease said: "[This] work is a worthy addition to the long series of North Carolina historical publications. Not much higher praise can be given any work or handbook of historical scholarship."²⁴

Of an inventory of a Louisiana parish, the *Journal of southern history* remarked: "In the historical sketches of the parish and its offices there are literally thousands of citations of constitutions, codes, acts, and revised statutes, and to the most authoritative secondary sources. A careful check reveals that the research has been accurate, exhaustive, and meticulous."²⁵

Of the program as a whole, Dr. Conyers Read, executive secretary of the American Historical Association, early stated in a letter dated September 20, 1937, to Harry Hopkins, WPA administrator:

I know of no other survey of national records in the world to compare with this one. . . . I used to think that the British Historical Manuscripts Commission furnished the pattern which we would do well to copy in America, but nothing the Historical Manuscripts Commission has ever done can compare in scope or accuracy with the work of Mr. Evans and his colleagues.

Although, as is natural—considering that historians had been taking an acute interest in archival problems for more than a generation—the most widespread appreciation came from historical societies or associations, historical publications, and historians individually, librarians followed a close second in observing with appreciation the progress of the HRS. Mr. Charles E. Rush, librarian of the Cleveland Public Library, wrote to Mr. Harry Hopkins to say that it was his conviction that the work would be of "significant importance to American scholarship." Upon the termination of the SFA (Survey of Federal Archives) as a nation-wide federal project, Dr. Malcolm Glenn Wyer, librarian of the Public Library of the City and County of Denver, wrote to Mr. Hopkins to insist that the work of the

²⁴ *American archivist*, I (1938), 91. Dr. Pease himself inventoried the county records of Illinois years ago.

²⁵ IV (1938), 128.

HRS "to be made effective . . . must be uniformly carried out in all parts of the country . . . under the direction of competent directors in Washington and in the various states." Mr. John G. Hicks, assistant librarian of the Law Library at the University of Louisville, called the inventories "an invaluable contribution to our knowledge of the county organization . . . in condensing from many old statutes as well as our present statutes the functions of the various county officers. And such reference work is appreciated," he continued, "by librarians who are frequently called on for the background of our present laws."

The incidental and presently experimental work of the HRS in the fields of producing or aiding in the production of reference tools for librarians would form an essay in itself. It is one that might well be written when the work is advanced to the stage of definitive form and of production in bulk. Meanwhile there have been developments abroad and in this country which appear to foreshadow coming events of interest to librarians and which indicate that in the future their relations with archival economy on the one hand and with local research on the other may become more intimate.

It is not only the work of the HRS and related undertakings of the WPA in opening up a hitherto almost inaccessible and very extensive source of information that is tending toward a revival of amateur scholarship, but it is this in relation to a number of other developments of which the new *Journal of documentary reproduction* of the American Library Association²⁶ is one symptom and the recent and proposed conferences on local research²⁷ are others. Trends in historiography and in education

²⁶ Edited by Dr. Vernon Tate, of the National Archives. Note also R. C. Binkley, *Manual on methods of reproducing research materials* (Ann Arbor: Edwards Bros., 1936).

²⁷ "Stenographic report of state-wide Historical Conference, Feb. 2, 1938," *Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, LVI (1938), 81-131. A state-wide conference has been proposed for Ohio (*American historical review*, XLIII [1937-38], 969). These are in addition to the customary or extraordinary conferences of state and local history societies held in conjunction with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association, and with the annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

reinforce the movement.²⁸ Briefly, what is happening is that a demand for the use of original source materials, especially in local history and in local government and administration, has grown up during the very time when the mechanical means developed for the reproduction and dissemination of the information contained in unpublished materials. Then came the economic crisis, and, instead of slowing down the attempts to open the storehouse of knowledge, it accelerated the slow progress by furnishing the finances and the personnel on a large scale. Now all the means for undertaking an exhaustive program of local research are in existence or being prepared, and steps are being taken to insure that an intelligent and systematic plan shall guide it.²⁹ Just as the temples in ancient times were the repositories for official records,³⁰ so the archives of America are destined to become the temples of scholarship. Plans have already been voiced to recruit teachers and students in rural districts to reinforce the army of professional scholarship in order to deal with the mass of new materials being thrown open.

The way in which this movement may affect librarians everywhere is indicated in provisions made in recent archival legislation abroad. The Esthonian archival legislation of 1935 provides for honorary archival deputies among the best qualified citizens in communities to foster local interest in archives, to advise local public officials on archival administration, and to keep in touch with the archivist and professional scholarship on the one hand and with the historically minded laity on the other.³¹ In our country the majority of such deputies under a similar provision would be selected almost certainly from among the librarians. In Czechoslovakia the national archives society conducted training courses in archives management and

²⁸ L. H. Evans, "Archives as material for the teaching of history," *Indiana history bulletin*, XV (1938), 136-53.

²⁹ Minutes and proceedings of the Conference on Comparative Local History conducted by the Social Science Research Council, September 23-26, 1937.

³⁰ Alfaro, *loc. cit.*

³¹ Review of "O. Liiv (ed.), *Arhiivinduse käsiraamat . . .*," *loc. cit.*

museum practice for teachers in intermediate schools who came in contact with archival collections in rural communities. In 1931 there were ninety-one teachers enrolled in this course.³² In Switzerland local officials have been trained in archive economy by special lectures and field trips.³³ In the United States a training course for archivists was conducted at Columbia University during the academic year 1938-39 by Dr. Solon J. Buck of the National Archives. For the year 1939-40 similar courses are planned at the University of Chicago and at the American University in Washington, D.C.

³² *American archivist*, I (1938), 49-50.

³³ Wilhelm Fürst and L. F. Barthel, "Schweizer Gemeindearchive" [Communal archives in Switzerland], *Archivalische Zeitschrift*, XLIV (1936), 281-82; cited in *American archivist*, I (1938), 39.

THE IDEA OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY

ALBERT PREDEEK

IN ATTEMPTING to understand the American library—its origin, development, character, and significance as a cultural, educational, and scientific institution—the foreign observer must be careful not to apply European standards or to base his conceptions on first impressions or on hasty visits to some metropolitan libraries on the eastern shores. The writer had the exceptional opportunity of staying for half a year in the United States; of traveling from coast to coast and from north to south; of studying many types of libraries in large and in small towns; and, above all, of collaborating for some months with the staff of one of the best college libraries in the Middle West.

Taking into account the contrariety and diversity of the United States—its physical nature, its people, and its style of living—one must realize that the underlying idea of American librarianship is deeply associated with the cultural, sociological, and economic conditions of the nation. It is not the purpose of this paper to deal with the history and organization of American libraries but to attempt to demonstrate the formation and operation of the library-idea. Now and then it will be necessary to cast back a glance on history. But there is no long distance to cover, since the political and cultural development of North America is concentrated into an epoch not much longer than two centuries.

The settlement of the Middle West and the Far West still lives in the memory of the present generation. It must be borne in mind that the European immigrant invaded a country very sparsely peopled, and that the history and culture of the New World began with the spade and with the pioneer who carried it.

He traveled light, and what he carried with him had to be useful enough to justify its transportation. Most utensils had to serve more than one pur-

pose, and this was as true of the institutions which he carried with him as of other tools, and as true of the ideas which lay behind these institutions. . . . He carried with him the rudiments of government and schools and church. A handful of these pioneers could organize any one of them. They had unspeculatively selected out of the ideas which their Puritan forebears had brought over with them those that were absolutely essential for a moral and political order, and with these they made out astonishingly well. The ideas had the stamp of a Calvinistic theology, but it was a Calvinism that . . . had only to give coherence of some sort to the straggling line of little communities that pushed farther and farther toward the setting sun. . . . Men did not think their ideas—they lived them.¹

Along with the pioneer wandered the book; first of all, the Bible and the Book of Common Prayer. To understand the high value placed upon books and book-reading in those times one must stay not only in large and rich towns where temples and cathedrals have been built in honor of books. He must stop also at one of those numerous local museums of a middle-western town and glimpse the relics of a settler's life—the tilt wagon, the ax, the rifle, and the small stock of worn-out books; or he must witness, in one of those isolated religious communities of German origin, the devout and faithful belief of old and young (inherited from their forefathers and brought over the water in remote times) in the written or printed regulations of their communities. The spirit of the pioneer and the squatter is still alive and effective even in the cultural, religious, and social institutions of the present generation—a strange, but quite deliberate, anachronism in the age of skyscrapers, autos, and radios.

From such a background have developed the ideas or "American imaginations," as a modern author terms them,² which must be considered the building-stones of the national life—e.g., the idea of an independent, united country; the idea of an American democracy based on the Constitution; the idea of the good citizen; and the idea of a good national education. According to

¹ G. H. Mead, "The philosophy of John Dewey," *International journal of ethics*, XLVI (1935-36), 64.

² Carl Van Doren, "The American imagination," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXI (1937), 647-51.

E. C. Richardson, it is the amount of common ideas, expressed in the Constitution, in the laws, in proverbs, in sayings, and in literature that keeps the nation together. Some of these ideas are of English origin, some are mixed with those of other peoples; but they are American ideas "and a man to be an American indeed must have these ideas."³ They have been spread over the whole country by means of the schools, the press, radio, propaganda, etc., and their suggesting vigor cannot be invalidated by the fact that they are sometimes turned into commonplace, or even trivial, phrases.

The fundamental ideas of the American library are education, culture, and the nation. The firm belief of the American people in the perpetual progress and improvement of mankind through education, learning, and reading is due to the remnants of the Puritan conception of life and is the more understandable because in earlier times the book was practically the only mediator of learning and culture and the only distributor of ideas. Elementary education and the establishment of primitive schools were left entirely to the church or to the landlord and remained, until the beginning of the nineteenth century, an almost patriarchal concern, except in the New England states. Even the United States Constitution of 1789 does not mention national education—to say nothing of libraries. Only Article I, Section 8, stipulates that Congress is entitled to take measures to promote the progress of science and useful arts. The urgent need to establish free public schools supported by municipal taxes was felt only after the United States had become a nation and when that nation began to push westward.

It is significant in American library history that the elementary schools, from their very beginnings, made use of libraries as a means of education and that both school and library soon started a scheme of co-operation on behalf of the young people who left school. This was rather primitive and experimental at first, but in 1835 the state of New York passed a law establishing school libraries in those small administrative units called

³ "Address of the president: the national library problem to-day," *Library journal*, XXX (1905), C 7.

school districts. The school-district libraries were tax supported and free to pupils, teachers, and citizens; they were, in fact, forerunners of the free public libraries. The example of New York was followed by Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Michigan. But the districts were too small, their incomes insufficient, and they lost much of their influence when the free municipal libraries came into existence. Eventually, about 1890, all school-district libraries were returned to their original status of nonpublic school libraries.

Nevertheless, from this experimental type of library sprang the idea of a permanent connection between the two educational agencies—the school and the library. This idea began to take definite shape about 1880 when, in consequence of alterations in educational outlooks and aims, new demands were made upon educational institutions. It was neither pedagogics nor tradition, but practical life that dictated novel purposes; and the schools willingly met them by introducing novel methods of teaching and by adding new subjects to their curriculums—e.g., courses in commerce, industry, household arts, sports, club life, self-education, and civic and political instruction. The main objective of education seemed to be the exemplary social being, the perfect citizen, the successful businessman.

By this time the free public library was past the period of infancy and was able to meet the new requirements of the school. Branches and book deposits were lodged in schools; traveling and circulating libraries were established to serve the small towns and the country districts. Large libraries provided reading-rooms and special collections for the young people; courses and lectures for the users of libraries were arranged. Eventually, children's libraries were started. These were so novel that they were the object of animated discussions at librarians' conferences in the later nineties. Today, children's departments or branches are a part of every public library—a convincing, often striking, expression of the missionary spirit of American children's librarians.

The idea of "democratizing education and libraries" in

America is credited to Benjamin Franklin, who in 1731 founded the Library Company of Philadelphia—the first subscription library in the world. Franklin wanted to bring books and culture not so much to the man of education and learning as to the common people—the handicraftsman, the merchant, the citizen, the farmer.⁴ His ideas lived in a number of social libraries and library associations and in philosophical and lecture associations which came into fashion in the later part of the eighteenth century. They were still alive in those cultural societies, debating clubs, and mechanics institutes of the early nineteenth century, until they were eventually realized by the free public libraries.

Such trends toward improving the educational standards of the people, termed "adult education," were eagerly and vigorously promoted by the municipal libraries of larger towns. With the beginning of the twentieth century this movement spread over the country, and at the present time even middle-sized and small communities usually undertake adult-education activities, although on modest scales. People's educational and cultural needs are met by establishing special collections or departments, reading-rooms, and branches for the working classes and for professional people. Many of the large libraries take an active part in professional and scientific training of adults, in close collaboration with schools and institutes concerned, by arranging lectures, discussions, and exhibitions, and by providing the necessary reading materials.

It was a favorable circumstance that the adult-education movement coincided with the university-extension movement. The latter had its first and most active center in the University of Chicago.⁵ Under this plan evening courses and lectures for

⁴ Franklin claimed that this class of libraries "improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen in other countries, and perhaps contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the colonies in defense of their privileges" (U.S. Bureau of Education, *Special report on public libraries in the United States of America: their history, condition, and management*, Part I [Washington: Government Printing Office, 1876], pp. 505-6).

⁵ T. W. Goodspeed, *A history of the University of Chicago* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1916), p. 134 and *passim*.

nonmatriculated or nonresident people were delivered by university teachers. An essential part of the program consisted in the management of correspondence courses for any in the country who wished them. These courses were welcomed as a proper emergency way to higher education for able persons who could not afford to go to a college or university. Consequently, the library became a very important factor in adult education, since the whole scheme depended largely on the provision of books and pamphlets. University extension was completed and amplified by library extension. One of its first and most stimulating promoters was Melvil Dewey, who in 1889 had already recommended co-operation between libraries and extra-mural university education and who had been able to start these activities himself at Columbia University.

While the university-extension movement swept rapidly over the country and became a permanent part of the educational programs of colleges and universities, library extension came into full operation only when it was organized and sponsored by the American Library Association during and after the World War. Since that time it has maintained an important position in the system of national education. Adult-education and library-extension activities are not restricted to municipal or state libraries; university and college libraries, as well as other scholarly and scientific libraries, are also actively participating in the common scheme by circulating and providing books, by issuing lists or catalogs, by arranging lectures or discussions, and by availing themselves of all modern technical facilities of distributing and disseminating books and ideas. The whole work is efficiently supported by co-operation, on the principle of mutuality, with kindred institutions like vocational schools, museums, clubs, and even denominational groups. Particularly in the smaller town is the local library the basis of the scheme where all parties concerned may meet and enjoy the library facilities and the assistance of the staff. Thus, the American public library may be properly termed "a people's university."⁶

⁶ Alvin Johnson, *The public library—a people's university* (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938).

The educational trends of the American library are associated closely with other groups of ideas—viz., the cultural functions. A national conception of "American culture" was first formulated after the Revolutionary War. The pending internal and external problems and difficulties called forth an American public opinion, an American press, and an American literature. The inauguration of the Constitution, the sometimes turbulent discussions between the Federalists and the Antifederalists which preceded and followed that event, and the calmer scientific interpretations of its true principles and their applications gave rise to abundant historical and political literature. The writings and speeches of the founders of the Republic and of the makers of the Constitution—first of all, Madison, Hamilton, and Jay's *The Federalist*; the classical works of American and foreign historians like Bancroft, Curtis, and de Tocqueville; the reports of Congress; and the decisions of the Supreme Court—gathered together on the shelves of state, public, and private libraries stimulated reading, studying, and the increase of libraries. Along with the immigrants, the political and cultural ideas of modern Europe poured into the young American democracy where they found an exceedingly receptive and fertile soil and exercised a prolific influence on the reciprocal intercourse between the Old and the New World.

In the 1820's the writings of Washington Irving and the novels of Cooper inaugurated the classical period of American literature. The eccentric art of Poe, the novels of Hawthorne, the poetry of Longfellow, and the first best-seller (*Uncle Tom's cabin*) multiplied the number of readers and the clientele of libraries. Emerson's philosophy of optimism and transcendentalism, deeply influenced by Goethe's thinking and the German idealism, produced that typically American spiritual attitude of "culture," the meaning of which is to ennoble, to improve, and to beautify life.

About that time Massachusetts was, perhaps, the most cultivated among the New England states, and Boston claimed the title of "the first literary city in the Union." The early establishment of state-controlled schools in Massachusetts disseminated the knowledge of reading and created very favorable

conditions for the foundation of proprietary and subscription libraries of popular character and of almost general accessibility. From this situation issued the first library law of the world—the Boston law in 1848, one year before the first English law. Four years later the first free public library was opened in Boston. It was promoted by leaders in government and also by scholars like George Ticknor and was supported by municipal taxes. The fact that in 1851 a state library law was already applied to all municipalities in Massachusetts is indicative of the general desire for reading and studying. Several other states followed the example of Massachusetts, and for the next decade the development of free public libraries proceeded promisingly. But the outbreak of the Civil War caused a stagnation which lasted beyond the time of political reconstruction and corruption and not till the centenary year, 1876, did the big change in political as well as in cultural life occur; it was, at the same time, the starting-point of a positive library policy.

The foundation of the American Library Association was a symptomatic event, and the publication of the famous *Special report on public libraries in the United States of America*⁷ proved that libraries and librarianship had succeeded in becoming objects of federal attention. It is true that the *Special report* did not provoke immediately federal library laws or administrative or financial measures. The Constitution does not interfere with cultural concerns—it leaves them to the states which, in their turn, are entitled to delegate educational and library matters fully or partly to the local authorities, provided they keep within the bounds of the federal or the state laws concerning taxation and government. Hence the American public library is generally an institution of local government. There is only one group of libraries which, from their very beginning, remained under the direct control of the state—i.e., the state libraries founded in the beginning of the nineteenth century, usually in the state capitals on behalf of the legislatures. However, these have changed almost entirely from their original character. From being accessible only to governmental and

⁷ U.S. Bureau of Education, *op. cit.*

legislative officers, they developed into libraries accessible to the general public and, finally, into library centers for supplying counties, smaller communities, and rural districts.

The fifty-year period from 1876-1926 is an exceedingly brilliant one in the development of the American library in general and of the public library in particular. It is the period of an unheard-of display of power of the United States, both inside and outside the country. The population had increased from 23 millions in 1850 to more than 76 millions by 1900 and had climbed over the 100-million mark before the World War; the national property had grown to 88 billion dollars in 1900 and to 335 billion dollars in 1925. Since 1880 the public expenses for educational purposes had been increased from 78 million to over 2 billion dollars.

Of course, the libraries could not compete with the schools, and they stood far behind in their proportional allotment of the public expenditure. However, the decade 1890-1900 is outstanding in library history as the beginning of a "golden age." Enormous fortunes were accumulated in private hands, and immense grants and gifts found their way into cultural institutions or were transformed into splendid collections and magnificent buildings. A part of the vast profits which John D. Rockefeller derived from his oil business was spent for the University of Chicago; and Andrew Carnegie, the steel king, in a really kingly way presented his country with more than three thousand library buildings, proving himself not only one of the great benefactors but one of the great educators of his fellow-countrymen. Carnegie's policy was to give only to those communities that were prepared to tax themselves to maintain a newly established library. Since his time more public libraries have been established by taxes than by gifts, and it is therefore correct to characterize the public library as one of the greatest contributions of the American people to the democratic culture of their country.

Indeed, in the towns and cities throughout the country, particularly in the Middle and the Far West, the public library represents an educational and cultural agency—often the only

one—for the whole population. The typical "Middletown," with its physical and spiritual attitude, can hardly be better characterized than by the well-known passage in Sinclair Lewis' novel, *Main street*, whose heroine is, incidentally, a librarian:

Nine-tenths of the American towns are so alike that it is the completest boredom to wander from one to another. Always, west of Pittsburgh, and often, east of it, there is the same lumber yard, the same railroad station, the same Ford garage, the same creamery, the same box-like houses and two-story shops. The new, more conscious houses are alike in their very attempts at diversity: the same bungalows, the same square houses of stucco or tapestry brick. The shops show the same standardized, nationally advertised wares; the newspapers of sections three thousand miles apart have the same "syndicated features"; the boy in Arkansas displays just such a flamboyant ready-made suit as is found on just such a boy in Delaware, both of them iterate the same slang phrases from the same sporting-pages, and if one of them is in college and the other is a barber, no one may surmise which is which.⁸

Millions of Americans are bound to spend their lives amid the gray monotony of these towns and in the overwhelming endlessness of a hard country. Uniformity and conventionality of civil and social life keep them within barriers they can hardly transgress. Here is a wide field open to the activity of the public library; all sides of the community's life are free to its initiative, and there are practically no limits to the possible applications of the energy and idealism of the library staff. It is by no means easy to induce the man or the woman of Middletown to read and to use the library; and sometimes it is still harder to overcome the indifference of shortsighted local authorities to the wants and needs of the public library. The library must, therefore, take an interest in local policies and cultivate the social, educational, and cultural interests of the community; uniting its own activities with those of women's clubs, philanthropic or religious circles, parent-teacher associations, and the like. Thus it becomes a center of organization for lectures, discussions, university-extension courses, and social meetings—not so much, perhaps, by contributing its own material services as

⁸ (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1930), p. 268.

by stimulating, supporting, and accomplishing works of common interest. It is no exaggeration to say that the American public library of the small and medium-sized town is one of the most important factors in American culture at the present time.

In the large cities people are oversaturated and made indifferent by the multitude of cultural possibilities; misled by the superficial reading material offered by newspapers, magazines, and light fiction; always desirous of enjoying newer and stronger stimulants; anxious to spend their leisure time in recreational places and pleasure resorts rather than in the reading-rooms of a library. Complying with the fashion of the times, the public library tries to attract the visitor at first by its fine and impressive exterior; by comfortably, even lavishly, furnished rooms; by manifold conveniences; and by a liberal and obliging attitude toward its users. The working program of the public library includes more than merely placing at the disposal of the reader the desired literature in the shortest time possible or accomplishing its routine with the highest degree of efficiency. This service is taken as a matter of course. The library is called upon to provide additional activities—e.g., exhibitions, lectures, radio and cinema programs, or even concerts and theatrical performances. It is not enough to entice the "man in the street" by skilful, businesslike, advertising propaganda; the public library must go even farther and call on its patrons, taking books, pictures, and objects of art and culture into their very homes. For the library patron may turn out to be a future benefactor, and the ordinary citizen should become accustomed to considering the public library as his own institution, nay, even as his property. He is expected to become, in turn, the friend and adviser of this public institution and to offer his support and assistance whenever it may be required. On the other hand, the patron must be entitled to control the development and policy of the library for which he is bound to pay taxes. Recently, many societies of friends of the public libraries have sprung up, establishing new links between the library and the public, increasing, naturally, the influence of the former.

The rudiments of cultural life—church, school, college, and

library—are by origin and nature much closer connected in America than in Europe. The strangeness and the barriers that existed, and still exist, between the cultural needs and the cultural institutions of the different classes of the people in Europe are almost unknown in America. Like the school, the college, or the church, the library is an essential factor in the national education of the whole people. And the goal is Americanization and democracy. To Americanize means to imbue the minds of the rising generation with the social and political ideals of the nation. Notwithstanding unrestrained personal freedom, these ideals inflict upon the individual duties which, as a good citizen, he cannot disregard. Americanization by education begins, naturally, with the foreign-born immigrants of the first and second generation who, at first, have to become acquainted with the English language and, through it, with American literature and culture. This is all the more important because the English and German immigration stopped before the World War, while the number of less cultivated and less welcomed immigrants from southeastern European and Asiatic countries increased.

The work with the foreign born is by no means restricted to New York, the "melting-pot," since the immigrants of the last two generations have spread all over the country (their number was estimated at about 39 millions in 1930). The American Library Association has set up a special committee for work with the foreign born which issues lists and bibliographies of books appropriate for immigrants and causes translations of American authors into foreign languages. The large public libraries contribute their share to this work by displaying literature of foreign countries in their reading-rooms as well as in the branches situated in foreign quarters⁹ or, like the New York Public Library, by arranging lectures and lessons for foreign-born people.

In connection with the foreign born, the Negroes (12 per cent of the total population in the United States) may be mentioned.

⁹ The Los Angeles Public Library has a special reading-room which contains an unusually complete and up-to-date collection of the well-known authors of all European nations.

They represent a racial element that cannot be assimilated and, therefore, offer a delicate sociological problem. So far, in the southern states the Americans have managed to evade the dangerous consequences of this situation by barring the Negroes from all institutions of white people. In large cities, in some states of the northeast, and in the industrial towns of the north where, during the Civil War, the number of Negroes greatly increased, they are admitted, under certain restrictions, to the cultural institutions of the white man or they have been able to establish institutions of their own—e.g., branch libraries in New York and in Chicago. In the southern states, however, where the Negroes represent 31 per cent of the population, their situation is much worse. Only one-fifth of their number have access to a library—Negro libraries, of course—and the two largest libraries do not own more than 10,000 books each. On the whole, the southeast and the southwest of the United States have the smallest number of libraries. However, large amounts of money, given by philanthropists and associations, are poured into this cultural vacuum. The American Library Association has lately set up a regional scheme of library service for the benefit of Negroes as well as white people; and, since co-operation of state, local, educational, and library authorities has been accomplished, the situation in the South has already been greatly improved.¹⁰

Thus the public library is a most efficient agency not only for Americanization but also for the propagation and consolidation of national conceptions of citizenship, Christianity, and democracy. These conceptions are, in fact, everywhere the same, no matter which political creed or party is concerned. Wherever a public or social undertaking is started, the public library is expected to join it and to offer material and personal services. No doubt this attitude of readiness greatly contributed to the propagation of the library-idea all over the country. The more

¹⁰ T. D. Barker, *Libraries of the South: a report on developments, 1930-1935* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1936); L. R. Wilson and E. A. Wight, *County library service in the South: a study of the Rosenwald County Library Demonstration* ("University of Chicago studies in library science" [Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935]).

people realized the common usefulness of their library, the more they were willing to encourage and to aid its development. And, as a rule, the American public library is eager to prove itself as a representative of public spirit. This means much in a country where local individualism and, very often, narrow-mindedness are strong; where local authorities are jealous of their rights; and where it is, therefore, sometimes hard to link smaller units with larger schemes and to overcome self-interest by voluntary self-restriction. Here again, the public library contributed considerably to creating that kind of co-operation which is a characteristic feature of the present policy of nationalization and Americanization.

Co-operation in the library field means co-operation between the libraries themselves and with other educational and cultural agencies; it aims at the extension of library service beyond its present limits. In some cases the public library of a large town serves as a center for the surrounding urban and, sometimes, rural districts; so that the inhabitants of such a library region have access to the library and may borrow books even if they are not taxpayers or residents. It is left to a special arrangement between the libraries or the library authorities concerned to meet the difficulties arising from a complicated administrative situation. It would take too much time to describe the particulars of the regional library system, but it must be emphasized that "regionalism" is not confined to the cultural sphere but has a nation-wide tendency.¹¹

Regionalism embraces all quarters of economic and public life and is one of the most efficient means of surmounting the obstacles standing in the way of national policy; in a word, regionalism is a milestone on the way from local and state rights to federal authority. One of the most imposing regional schemes of today is the Tennessee Valley project, supported by the federal government and placed under the control of an independent authority—TVA—an immense planning system which includes the areas of more than seven states and regulates not

¹¹ C. B. Joeckel, *Library service: prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education* ("Staff study," No. 11 [Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938]).

only the Tennessee River but engineering work, road construction, public utilities, industrial and town planning, hygiene, farming, economics, and the cultural interests of a vast territory. It is the great national laboratory for regional planning in all economic, social, and cultural spheres; it has trained men and founded schools and libraries.¹² Perhaps for the first time in library history regional library service has been set up as an organic constituent of national planning.

The American Library Association faced the problem of regionalism by appointing a special Planning Committee in 1934, which formulated its program thus: Since the maintenance of democratic, cultural, and social ideals of the American people largely depends on their dissemination through the libraries, a more efficient organization of book distribution must be accomplished which will consider the present conditions of the country. Every American must have free access to a library; every state should co-ordinate its library service and put it under the control of a central office; the whole country must be organized as a system of library regions bound to co-operate with all the other agencies of education, learning, research, and administration, controlled by a federal office.¹³ It may be reserved to a remote future to carry through this program. For the time being, essential conditions for its realization are lacking—e.g., a national circulation system; uniform, nationally accepted principles of training, appointment, and salaries of the personnel; federal participation in the complex system of state and local service; and federal grants-in-aid. However, the outlines of a national library system begin to take shape. On January 1, 1938, there was established in the United States Office of Education a Library Service Division to serve as an advisory central office. This may, eventually, bring forth a nation-wide, co-operative library system.

¹² H. W. Odum, *Southern regions of the United States* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936), p. 173; "The T.V.A.—a library Utopia," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXI (1937), 660-61.

¹³ C. B. Joeckel, "Federal relations to libraries," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXIX (1935), 60-63.

There are no sharp differences between the American public library and the scientific or scholarly library such as exist in most European countries. As a rule, the public library in a large town has a scientific or scholarly section. The reference library—in some respects like the German town library, although it does not circulate its books as do all German scholarly libraries—sprang up with the public library. But the American scientific or scholarly library is still older; in fact, it is the earliest type of library in the country. Its origin may be traced to Colonial times or rather to the times of the Pilgrim Fathers, for among the Pilgrims were many Oxford and Cambridge men—clergymen, lawyers, and scholars—who carried their inclination for learning, as well as their books, with them into the New World. Love of learning and love of books were fostered and cultivated throughout the whole eighteenth century. In the New England states, philosophical and learned societies were the meeting circles of scholars and book-lovers; and their undertakings and transactions were carried on in the nineteenth century by the athenaeums, museums, and other societies, which usually owned fine proprietary libraries—as, for example, the famous Boston Athenaeum. In the southeast, splendid private libraries were collected and augmented by wealthy families, statesmen, and landowners. Many of them were ruined during the Revolutionary War, but remainders were spared and found their way into the libraries of our times.

Classical contributions to the political literature of the young republic were made by men like Washington, Madison, Jefferson, and Hamilton. But it is undeniable that in the first half of the nineteenth century the research material in scientific institutions and book collections was rather poor and discouraging. Students of history or of literature (like George Bancroft, Edward Everett, and George Ticknor) went to Europe to enjoy the facilities of the great libraries in London, Paris, and Göttingen. During the debates concerning the establishment of a national library in Washington a member of the library committee stated that “in all the public libraries of the United States, including those of schools and colleges throughout our

wide territory and counting all the duplicates, there are not as many books as are contained in the Bibliothèque du Roi in Paris."¹⁴ And in an article in the *North American review* of July, 1837, the writer noted: "It has been said that the history of the 'Decline and fall of the Roman Empire' could not have been written in America," and that "the very best life of Columbus is the work of an American, but it was written in Spain."¹⁵

After the Civil War, in the years of progressive consolidation of the country, the demand for public and generally accessible libraries became more urgent. But neither the town libraries then in existence nor the college or university libraries were able to meet the requirements. These deficiencies were deeply felt even during the second half of the century. However, to a certain extent the gaps were filled by the private collectors or by the American millionaires who, as Justin Winsor put it, had to do what was not done for learning elsewhere. The great American collectors—the Astors, Lenox, Tilden, Brown, or their representatives—placed their orders at the European book sales; and Henry Stevens of Vermont settled in London to hunt up early "Americana" and precious historical nuggets which, for the greater part, were added to American collections. The purchases of complete collections owned by European scholars were started in the sixties and seventies. The libraries of Ebeling, Franz Bopp, Robert von Mohl, Rau, Hengstenberg, Ess, Neander, and many others made their way across the ocean into American college and university libraries, starting a literary immigration that still continues.

To keep pace with the scientific and technical progress during the second half of the nineteenth century, research institutes and research libraries were urgently needed. It is not out of place to recall the powerful speech of Senator Rufus Choate on January 8, 1845, in which he pointed out that he was not in favor of setting up a university in Washington but that the

¹⁴ W. D. Johnston, *History of the Library of Congress*, Vol. I: 1801-1864 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1904), p. 240.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 231, 232.

most judicious way to that end would be, in his opinion, the collecting of a great library. "By such a library . . . much will be done, to help every college, every school, every studious man, every writer and thinker in the country to just what is wanted most. . . . It will do good to have your educated men come to Washington for what has heretofore cost voyages to Germany."¹⁶

Such arguments played an important role in developing the Library of Congress, and the promoters and organizers of this national repository of books—foremost among whom was the genial Herbert Putnam—considered it a natural consequence to make it the national center for scholarship and scientific research. Among the manifold activities of the Library of Congress, one of the most significant is the supplying of research materials to any place in the country. This is performed by the publication of sources and guides to research, by its world-famous bibliographical service, and by giving helps and information to students and users. Herbert Putnam improved the research facilities greatly by initiating the establishment of "library chairs" and "library consultants." Since 1925 there have been appointed experts in five scientific branches for independent research work and fourteen additional specialists as professional advisers of the library staff and the public. The underlying tendency is to raise the staff to faculty rank and to transform the library into a people's university.

Washington, D.C., has a number of other large and efficient research libraries, many of which are attached to federal agencies—e.g., the libraries of the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Mines, the National Archives, and the Surgeon General's Office. These are closely connected with research bureaus and have an official or semiofficial character. In addition, there are numerous public and private libraries spread over the country where special collections are cared for and research work is done—e.g., the Folger Shakespeare Library in Washington, D.C.; the Clements Library in Ann Arbor; and the Huntington Library in San Marino.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 408.

Since specialization in natural and applied sciences became pronounced about the end of the nineteenth century, and industry, too, started the establishment of scientific laboratories and research institutes, a new type of library sprang up—the special library, owned by the large industrial firms or by scientific associations or even by private individuals. In 1909 the Association of Special Libraries was founded—the first organization of this category—which comprises at present more than 3,000 libraries of all kinds and sizes.

It is, to a certain extent, attributable to American democracy that research as well as higher education were and are cultivated and supported principally by private initiative and by private means. Contrary to German practice—where the state has always been the first promoter of learning and education and where, accordingly, the institutions of research (including laboratories and libraries) are state supported and state controlled—American institutions of higher learning are largely corporate or private establishments. Since professional training is generally carried on in professional schools, a far-reaching and complicated differentiation and specialization in higher education exists that could not fail to bias the development of universal scholarly libraries.

American university libraries are not universal in a catholic sense, and as research libraries they are comparatively recent. No university library of the past had a full and complete collection of the literature of all sciences such as their European sisters were always eager to get together. In fact, American university libraries were college libraries, as the college was and still is the essential part of that academic institution devoted to the humanities and liberal arts. To serve the college, the library was confined to the collection of the literature of the humanities and arts. It is true that Harvard College Library can boast of having presented to the New World the first books on Occidental theology, philosophy, and law, thus starting the history of libraries and of higher education in America. But neither Harvard nor any of the few college libraries of Colonial times went beyond the traditional aims. They were theological and

philosophical in character, just as the colleges were educational institutions for clergymen, lawyers, statesmen, and—gentlemen. Even when, with the prosperous decades following the Civil War, the higher schools began to flourish and the interest in higher education began to increase, the colleges kept with the traditional English methods of education and stuck to the scholastic instruction based on textbooks, instead of familiarizing the student with independent learning, thinking, and judging for himself. The college libraries were rather poor; they seldom possessed more than 10,000 or, very rarely, 25,000 volumes, and they were not in a position to keep pace with scientific progress or to pursue a far-seeing policy.

However, this situation experienced a favorable turn about the middle of the nineteenth century when the ideas of the German school system came across the ocean and brought about a reorganization of American primary and secondary schools, and, eventually, of the methods of academic instruction.¹⁷ Two famous publications were particularly influential: Madame de Staël's *Germany* (1813) and M. Victor Cousin's *Report on the state of public instruction in Prussia* (1831)—a report considered to have had direct and indirect effects by far surpassing in importance the results of any other pedagogical book in the history of the country.¹⁸ Men like Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and George Ticknor went to German universities, studying their methods and imbibing the spirit of German scholarship. Many American students followed their example and brought back with them the firm belief in the superiority of the German over the American university. In the seventies, Harvard, the University of Michigan, and other universities adopted the German seminar instruction and the examination for a Doctor's degree. In 1876, Johns Hopkins in Baltimore—the first American university organized after the German model—was established. In 1892 the University of Chicago came into

¹⁷ J. A. Walz, *German influence in American education and culture* (Philadelphia: Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation, 1936).

¹⁸ I. N. Demmon (ed.), *History of the University of Michigan. By the late Burke A. Hinsdale: with biographical sketches of regents and members of the University senate from 1837 to 1906* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1906), p. 16.

existence, and President Harper set up a progressive scheme of higher learning which was based decidedly upon graduate work, thus taking the lead in American university development for at least a quarter of a century. But the reverse was that inflation of professional schools which Abraham Flexner criticizes severely but justly.¹⁹ Such schools and courses, covering sometimes queer and pseudoscientific subjects—such as advertising, the “science” of ice cream making, or laying a table—are managed perhaps more readily in state universities and state colleges than in endowed universities that are not so dependent on a large clientele. But these trends do not stop even before the gates of those universities which so far have kept the flag of scholarship and science flying.

President Robert Maynard Hutchins of the University of Chicago, when speaking of the severe crisis through which the American university is passing, describes the present situation of higher learning as chaotic: “The modern university,” he says, “may be compared with an encyclopedia. . . . It has departments running from art to zoölogy; but neither the students nor the professors know what is the relation of one departmental truth to another, or what the relation of departmental truths to those in the domain of another department may be.”²⁰ Instead of providing the student with a sound knowledge of fundamental sciences, the university instruction has for its main purpose the accumulation of insignificant dates and information. “But this knowledge is gained in general through textbooks, and textbooks have probably done as much to degrade the American intelligence as any single force.”²¹ Since this method leads only to professional routine which may secure better social positions but plunges higher education into the dilemma of isolation and anti-intellectualism, Hutchins wants all professional training excluded from the university. He believes such training

¹⁹ *Universities, American, English, German* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1930).

²⁰ *The higher learning in America* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936), p. 95 and *passim*.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 78. Cf. R. M. Hutchins, *No friendly voice* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), and “University education,” *Yale review*, XXV (1935-36), 665-82.

might well be transferred to professional schools attached to the university or, perhaps, quite independent from it, where research work, experimentation, and applied sciences may be carried on and vocational finishing may be attained. The true university training should consist of a four-year college course of general education in mathematics, logic, grammar, and rhetoric, based upon the great books of the Western World; and a three-year training in metaphysics, social science, and natural science, with emphasis upon one.

Hutchins' proposals, drawing upon a revival of the ideals of the university of the Middle Ages, raised enthusiastic approbation from some and vehement protests from others, but they struck the very heart of the crisis—the lack of unity and of a fundamental idea in higher education. At the same time, they touch upon the essential problem concerning the attitude of the university library toward university education. As a matter of fact, the university libraries strive for the same goal that university reformers like Hutchins do. For, since German methods of liberal university education were adopted by some of the American universities and colleges, farsighted librarians began to realize that the narrow-minded "textbook method" had to be superseded by the liberty to choose the books with discretion and that it must be the explicit business of the library to provide the student with the standard works of all sciences, all languages, and all times. This made it necessary, as it turned out, to improve the means, the routine, and the technique of library service, and to strengthen the position of the library staff within the university. It was a long and troublesome way the libraries had to pursue, and many problems remain to be settled. But, on the whole, the prospects are encouraging. As the president of a middle-western college has put it:

Since 1900 the library has assumed an increasingly important place in the educational program of the college. . . . The tendency in modern college teaching is away from the lecture, textbook and note-taking method of instruction, and in the direction of greater stress on the assimilation of ideas gathered from the many sources made available in the library. The introduction of such studies as modern history, political science, psychology, economics, sociology and the natural sciences has created a demand for access

to many books, both old and new . . . the teacher and the library are closely related parts of one great scheme of higher education. In short, the college library has been transformed from a storehouse to a great educational laboratory, the center of academic activities and the pulse of the institution's intellectual life, with unusual opportunities and facilities for revealing to the student that synthesis of knowledge which is one of the great ideals and objectives of college training.²²

It will be realized that such trends are wholly in accord with the ideas of Hutchins and the university reformers. Obviously, such a prominent place of the library within the organism of the modern university imposes higher duties on the library staff and a more active participation in academic life than was the case under former conditions. But here again, the American university library and its librarians are in a more favorable position than are European libraries and librarians, for the close and genuine relation between the American university and its library that existed from the very beginning has never been relaxed by an "autonomy of librarianship" such as was established in Germany in the 1880's and which led to an alienation between the library staff and the faculty. Certainly, the American university library depends largely on the president and the general faculty, or on members of the library committee who are the proper authorities for the allotment of funds and who exercise considerable control over the expenditures and management of the library. But the librarian, and very often some department heads, are fully qualified professors and members of the faculty.

While the American university and college libraries contributed largely to the improvement of research facilities and the standard of instruction, they became entangled, on the other hand, in the professionalism and departmentalism which are responsible for the present embarrassing situation of the university. There can be no doubt that American university and college libraries are undergoing a crisis, both internally and externally. And some of the charges that are raised against the universities can be laid at the doors of the libraries. About

²² C. E. Friley, "College library control," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXIX (1935), 67.

1900, American libraries—scholarly as well as public—entered into a new period of development which may be termed “standardization.” New working methods were adopted which allowed the same process to be executed everywhere in exactly the same way or, still better, once for all by a central agency. Among such methods of standardization may be mentioned the unification of cataloging rules, the great systems of classification, and the magnificent scheme of distributing printed cards and depository catalogs of the Library of Congress, to say nothing of the vast documentary services accomplished by the bibliographical publications of that library. Library management and library routine were also standardized—or rather, rationalized—by splitting the whole operation into processes and branches, everywhere alike, equipped with the same kind of technicalities and with the same type of personnel trained by the same methods.

In every library one meets the reiteration of the main departments or divisions—catalog, reference, circulation, order, periodical, binding, administration, extension, publicity, etc. Everywhere is the same type of female junior and senior assistant, doing the same routine work very efficiently and very obligingly but rather mechanically; nor is she very well informed on matters outside her proper sphere. Routine, technique, and standardization are perfectly performed; and the whole fabric of main and of special departments, of branches and divisions, and of all the other activities of the library are run with the greatest efficiency. Consequently, there is imminent danger that brainwork is gradually replaced by mechanical procedure, thoroughness by routine, quality by quantity. Having attained a standard of technical and working perfection unheard of in library history, clear-sighted librarians and university men realize that more stress should be placed upon the improvement of vocational training and that scholarship should be recognized as more essential than routine.

But there is another serious menace to the future development of university and college libraries—departmentalization. This means the splitting-up of the entire bookstock of the uni-

versity into a growing number of more or less independent libraries of departments and institutes, which are inclined to pursue individual policies of their own. The tendency toward such a decentralization is encouraged, or even caused, by that "professionalism" which threatens the very basis of academic life and learning. Though institutional libraries are symptoms of scientific specialization, and in so far justified, it is beyond question that the library facilities of a university should be controlled from a central authority in order to avoid overlapping, duplication, and waste of time and money. Principally, university libraries stand for centralization or, at least, for co-operation between a central library and departmental collections. And, as a rule, in large universities and colleges these trends are approved and encouraged by the faculties and by the library committees. The terms of a general understanding comprise a central allotment of funds, a central purchasing policy, central cataloging, central bibliographical service, and central circulation. Perhaps the most outstanding feature of this co-operative scheme is the active participation of the central, as well as of the departmental, libraries in instructional and research activities effected by compiling special catalogs or bibliographies, by setting up information desks, by grouping or detaching separate collections, by organizing displays and exhibitions, by supporting university-extension courses, or by offering instructional courses for the users of library facilities (given by the library's staff). On the other hand, it must be mentioned that most college and university libraries undertake activities that are beyond their scope and that should be left to other agencies. It is, for instance, not the business of a scholarly library to fill the shelves of the general reading-room with novels and light literature under the pretext of getting the Freshmen accustomed to reading. Another practice is the establishing of "assigned reading-rooms" for the benefit of undergraduates, packed with textbooks, sometimes in dozens of copies, which absorb a disproportionately large percentage of the library's income. But this charge should be directed against the existing

method of undergraduate instruction, which still relies on textbooks and assigned reading.

But on the whole, and in spite of certain shortcomings, American college and university libraries are very active factors in the centralization and unification of the literary resources of learning and research. In building up their fine collections they showed farsightedness and a sense of real scholarship. It is, therefore, only fair to state that American scholarly libraries are among the first promoters of the idea of learning and research, and that they must play an important role in future university reform and university development.

Among the institutions criticized so severely, Flexner makes special reference to the library schools, for which, according to him, there should be no room in a university.²³ That they could spring up at all is only because, as he sees it, all professions constantly increased the requirements of admission and of professional training. However much Flexner may object to the library school of Columbia, which admits only students with the Bachelor's degree (thus requiring a higher standard of pre-professional training than the medical school), he seems to overlook the new trends in library training. For they are directed at improving the general standard of higher education which the new generation of librarians must attain by university courses instead of by practice alone. Therefore, the fundamental question of the profession is at stake—the vocational idea of librarianship.

When Melvil Dewey organized the first library school of the world in 1887 he laid special emphasis on "library economy" in the curriculum. There were no strict requirements for admission to the school and it was not until 1891 that a high-school education was insisted upon. Albany and the other library schools established before 1900 could not boast of an academically qualified teaching staff. But in 1900 the situation changed for the better. The American Library Association took up the matter of professional training and appointed a Board of Education for Librarianship. In 1924 minimum standards for

²³ *Op. cit.*, p. 139.

admission were stipulated for the accredited library schools, which at present number thirty and are divided into three categories: (1) those which require at least a Bachelor's degree for admission to the first full academic year of library science, and/or which give advanced professional training beyond the first year; (2) those which give only the first full academic year of library science and require four years of appropriate college work for admission; and (3) those which give only the first full academic year of library science and do not require four years of college work for admission.

A decidedly new conception of librarianship and of the library profession is coming into shape in the library schools, the ultimate aim being a scientific investigation of the phenomenon "library" and of its functions from sociological, administrative, legal, and cultural points of view. Such investigations are outstanding in the library schools of Columbia, of Ann Arbor, of Berkeley, and particularly of Chicago.²⁴ The school of the University of Chicago, as well as that of Columbia, is under the administration of a dean. Both schools have a number of full-time professors who are members of the respective faculties and are not bound to practical library services. Instruction is based upon seminar methods, and organized programs are in effect which lead to the Doctor's degree. Professors and students are expected to carry on research; and the publication of a series of remarkably good studies testifies to the high standard of both instruction and research. In Chicago, moreover, a library institute has been established—a convocation of librarians, sociologists, historians, economists, educators, and other university men—which meets once a year for the purpose of discussing from different points of view, library problems and library phenomena.²⁵ Obviously, the conception of librarianship as a learned profession is gaining ground in this atmosphere and it is propagated by all who attend the courses

²⁴ Cf. "University of Chicago studies in library science."

²⁵ C. B. Joeckel (ed.), *Current issues in library administration: papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 1-12, 1938* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939).

of the graduate schools. Library science acquires thus a new and deeper meaning.

Many of the younger generation have passed through the curriculums of the existing library schools; others have had theoretical and practical training courses in large libraries. But there are many libraries, even important ones, that keep to the principle of admitting, training, and promoting members of their staffs according to their own regulations and conditions. Standards of professional education and promotion are still far from being accepted universally, and the ideal of librarianship as a vocation has been and is by no means always the same throughout the country. The present ideal differs widely from that of the pioneer period, when men like Winsor, Poole, Jewett, Cutter, Spofford, and Billings created the profession and raised the librarian to a respected position. With the seventies came a new generation, led by Melvil Dewey, full of idealism and enthusiasm for their calling; a generation, as W. W. Bishop characterizes it,²⁶ that passed away with the expiring century, old fashioned perhaps, but unremitting, scrupulous, and unselfish, keen collectors and scholars with all good and productive qualities; but they were not promoters of "big library business." Within a changing world the ideals of librarianship changed in an almost revolutionary manner; the library underwent "socialization," serving not merely the educated and learned classes but the whole population; and librarianship was perhaps not so much inspired by scholarship as by a sense of devotion to the reader.

This is, as Bishop sees it, the American library's contribution to education and to the social standard of the nation. It is, moreover, a contribution to the world's librarianship, although there are certain differences between the American and the European, e.g., the German conception of the profession. The American librarian of the present time is usually modern, well educated, skilful, well trained in the administration and management of a large and complicated concern, and, in addition he

²⁶ "Changing ideals in librarianship," in *The backs of books and other essays in librarianship* (Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1926).

or she is very often a public figure, ready to deal with politics as well as with business or advertising. This implies shortcomings, and there are certainly weak points concerning his scientific or scholarly accomplishments. These are compensated for, however, by qualities of efficiency which have multiplied the clientele of the libraries and have made the public library, as well as the scholarly, the research, and the special library, institutions familiar to all classes of the population.

Yet the conception of librarianship includes both idealistic and realistic aspects. The slogan "Service to the reader" does not mean merely that the librarian is willing to offer services to the best of his ability, to submit to sacrifices, and to be content with an unassuming career; it implies a tacit appeal to the reader and to the public-at-large to stand up for the cause of the library and the library profession. For socially and economically, the standing of the American librarian is rather modest and out of proportion to the numerical importance and to the cultural significance of the profession. Compared with commercial and industrial classes, the librarian belongs to a sadly underpaid profession, and he shares this lot only with educators, professors, clergymen, and artists—in fact, the librarian generally stands on the lowest step of the scale. This may be ascribed partly to an undervaluation of American learned professions, and partly to the fact that the library profession is a feminine profession—approximately 91 per cent of its members are women.²⁷ No doubt this is a weak point, but it may turn out sometimes to be a benefit.

The United States is the Elysium of women; women are influential, even decisive, in many cultural and social concerns; women's clubs and leagues command large domains of the nation's intellectual, social, religious, and political life. Since the eighties, when the male sex became more and more absorbed by economic and public life, women have taken over the work of the school and of the library. They have been welcomed by the public authorities because they would work for lower salaries, though this meant lower professional standards, too.

²⁷ *U.S. Census, 1930, Vol. IV: Population: occupations by states*, p. 15.

It is beyond doubt that there are many American women librarians who are able, clever, creative, and well qualified to run even a large library system. But they are hardly entitled to superintend male colleagues who exercise important functions. As junior and senior assistants, as heads of certain departments and branches, however, the American woman librarian has succeeded in impressing upon librarianship typical feminine features—e.g., carefulness, helpfulness, readiness to serve, amiability and adaptability, and a marked sense of cultivation and beauty that makes American libraries so attractive. On the other hand, the American woman librarian is disposed to subordinate herself to the written and unwritten rules of the profession, to tradition, or to convention. Hence, there is a tendency to dependence, pedantry, and lack of initiative. Such characteristics vary, of course, but on the whole they shaped a very distinct and rather uniform type of librarian.²⁸

Under the prevailing circumstances the American Library Association, as the representative embodiment of American librarianship, is a vast and powerful organization; but it may be questioned whether it is, in its present form, a full and correct expression of the underlying ideas and forces. With a total membership of almost 15,000 the A.L.A. is a rather bewildering representation of various differing, and even clashing, interests. Local and regional conditions, the variety of library types, the amount of autonomy or of dependence on local and state authorities, and the natural diversity of opinions and trends hampers the progress of professional consistency and the formulation of a uniform policy. Accordingly, groups within the A.L.A. began to form as early as 1889, when the College and Reference Section, representing the interests of the scholarly libraries, was founded. The forming of groups and sections continued; state and local associations sprang up, more or less dependent on the central organization but all with their special

²⁸ E. H. Wilson gives an amusing, but perhaps proper, description of a typical middle-western library school student in "Pre-professional background of students in a library school," *Library quarterly*, VIII (1938), 184.

purposes and claims and with distinct vocational and professional ideals.

The state of decomposition—if this term may be applied to an increasing tendency to split up—of the A.L.A. becomes manifest during an annual conference. In 1937, for instance, some three scores of special meetings of sections, groups, "round tables," and the like, in addition to the general and official sessions, proved necessary to cover the whole range of the program. Obviously, there is a considerable, but unavoidable, colliding and overlapping of sessions and discussions; many visitors are prevented from attending meetings in which they would be highly interested, and the principal result is, after all, an imposing social gathering and a good opportunity of cultivating connections. But, on the other hand, the A.L.A. conference is a prominent public and professional event, an impressing display of library forces and library activities, and in so far an effective propaganda medium of the American library-idea.

The driving and leading power behind this vast organization is the Executive Board, while the A.L.A. president acts as a representative figure. The policy of the A.L.A. may be influenced by the president, but the actual course of the activities is determined by the Executive Board and usually by the secretary. Sections and branches are entitled to proportionate representation in the central body; but since the public libraries section is by far the strongest numerically, a just arrangement of differences between sectional opinions is sometimes precarious and there is a pending danger that the smaller sections may be outvoted by the larger ones. The College and Reference Section, for instance, has for some time been fighting strenuously against the preponderance of the public libraries and for a better representation of scholarly trends within the board. And it may well be that this struggle of principles may lead to a reorganization of the A.L.A.²⁹

²⁹ "Reorganization of the College and Reference Section," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXI (1937), 589-600; C. H. Brown, "What shall we do with the A.L.A.?" *ibid.*, XXXII (1938), 29-31; "Forum discusses A.L.A. reorganization," *ibid.*, pp. 489-96.

Regarding general policy, however, the A.L.A. has pursued almost from its very beginning a consistent course. The enthusiasm and the firm belief in the mission of libraries which inspired its founders could not fail to impress the public and to direct the attention of influential circles to the library movement. Anxious to keep pace with the new educational and cultural tendencies which sprang up about the turn of the century, the A.L.A. laid special emphasis upon the promotion of adult education, work with children, library extension, and contacts with kindred groups and associations. That attitude resulted in an increasing appreciation of the A.L.A.'s activities by the public as well as by those authorities who commanded great wealth. What the Carnegie Corporation and like organizations accomplished for the A.L.A. and for numberless libraries and librarians all over the United States and beyond its borders must always be reckoned among the greatest achievements for the culture and education of the American nation. It is by such an attitude, significant for the American belief in cultural progress by education and reading, that the A.L.A. and American librarianship can derive perpetual material and spiritual support—provided that the American library-idea continues to appeal to the national imagination and the national philosophy.

LIBRARY UNIONIZATION

BERNARD BERELSON

ALTHOUGH only a small proportion of the librarians of the country have actually become union members, the issue of library unionization has attracted attention throughout the profession, and much of the most active library discussion of recent years has been concerned with it. If such discussion, in print or in meetings, has often seemed to bring more heat than light to consideration of the problem, the reasons may be found in the confidence of each side in the justice of its position, in the nature of the implications seen differently by each side, and in the "unorthodoxy" of the proposal. Such reasons, of course, only serve to emphasize the need for calm and critical appraisal of the issue; if we recognize at the outset that unionization carries a higher emotional charge than most library issues, we shall be forewarned to speak dispassionately. But as an honest and sincere proposal for the good of the library profession, the problem deserves honest and sincere study.

The question did not arise as a purely academic matter; certain basic economic drives, emphasized and sharpened during the depression, led many librarians to a consideration of the solution which unionization offered to some of their problems. Nor did it arise within the profession in isolation; the movement toward unionization is not unrelated to the movement toward organization which has led to the formation of the Junior Members Round Table and the Staff Organizations Round Table of the American Library Association. Indeed, throughout the depression there has been a growing concern with library personnel problems and perhaps a growing realization that such problems have more to do with certain professional problems than librarians have hitherto thought. The importance of the matter is reflected in the 1937 report of the secretary of the A.L.A.:

The increasing frequency with which these perplexing personnel problems appear to be arising suggests that the time may be near at hand when library administrators will have to work out with their assistants solutions for some of the same problems which are now seriously disturbing the relations between employee and employer in industry. Library employees, along with most other intelligent employed persons, are perhaps feeling the urge to demand not only better working conditions and salaries which will support a higher standard of living, but also more economic security and a larger part in the control of the destinies and policies of the agencies or institutions with which they are associated.¹

From the very nature of the question it is impossible to prove the correctness of either side; the issue is still in the argumentative stage. It is possible, however, to bring together certain material that is relevant to it and, perhaps, thus to provide a better basis for further discussion. The purpose of this article is to outline the background material necessary for any appraisal of the desirability and value of library unionization and to indicate the reasons advanced for unionization by its advocates. First, we shall trace the historical relationship between labor and education, and particularly between labor and the library, in order to determine whether the interests of educators and librarians and of labor are similar with regard to the extension and improvement of education and library service. Then, realizing that the position of librarians with regard to unionization is different from that of most of organized labor in the two respects that librarians are professional workers and public employees, we shall examine the extent and results of unionization among other professional and public employees both in the United States and abroad. Our next section, completing what might be called the historical background of the paper, will be an account of library unionization in the United States with some reference to library unionization abroad. After this general survey we shall turn to a brief consideration of the reasons given by its advocates for unionization.

Before proceeding to the discussion we must define the term "union." Webster defines a trade-union to be "a voluntary as-

¹ C. H. Milam, "Secretary's report," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXI (1937), 488.

sociation of working people organized to further or maintain their rights, privileges, and interests with respect to wages, hours and conditions of labor, efficiency, education, mutual insurance, customs, etc." Clearly this is too broad a definition for our purposes; it would include even the A.L.A.! A recent history of American labor defines a trade-union as "a voluntary continuous association of wage earners who unite to maintain and improve their working conditions."² We shall consider an organization to be a library union if it is a voluntary association of library employees organized essentially as a protective organization to deal with salaries and other conditions of work. It is necessary to emphasize here that affiliation with organized labor is not the mark of identification of a union but rather the nature of the activities in which the group engages. A staff association in name may be a union in fact, and to the extent that such an organization acts in a protective capacity on behalf of its members it is plainly performing the functions of a union. However, for obvious reasons the discussion in these pages is concerned, for the most part, with those American library unions which are affiliated with one or the other of the two major labor organizations—the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

LABOR AND EDUCATION

In this section we shall seek to determine whether a library union might reasonably expect support from labor in its effort to improve and extend library service.³

Probably the most important piece of scholarship directly relevant to our problem is Sidney Ditzion's thesis, "The public library movement in the United States as it was influenced by the needs of the wage earner, 1850-1900." Ditzion found that "the needs of the wage earner constitute and explain the most important group of causal factors behind the American public

² Herbert Harris, *American labor* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939), p. 2.

³ We are limiting ourselves here to the educational program of labor and are not considering its broader social program which has resulted in a higher standard of living, shorter working hours, better working conditions, less child labor, etc. These, too, have had their influence on librarians and the library.

library movement."⁴ The first widespread library movement, he points out, was that of mechanics' and apprentices' libraries; later, there were mercantile libraries—partly for clerks—libraries of workingmen's organizations,⁵ libraries in industrial plants, and libraries for railroad workers. Ditzion notes the implications for libraries of the winning by labor of the eight-hour day and goes on to show that labor used library facilities, supported the establishment of libraries, and voted for library appropriations. His conclusions are that "the needs of the wage earner were implicated in all of the theories of the library movement as an important, if not paramount, factor. . . . The facts prove beyond a doubt that the democratic forces (from below) were more influential in shaping and directing the course of free library service"⁶ than philanthropy or other forces from above. In a later article Ditzion lists four factors involved in the social backgrounds of the library movement, one of which is "the attitudes of organized labor toward mass education through the medium of books and reading."⁷

Another student writes that "by and large the rapid multiplication of libraries between 1850 and 1890 was synchronous with the labor movement and the achievement of shorter working hours. Whether or not the connection between the two movements was visible to the people of that day, it appears clear in retrospect that such a connection existed."⁸ And a third, not a librarian but a sociologist, lists increased leisure for

⁴ Unpublished Master's thesis (City College of New York, 1938), p. 6.

⁵ There are several references to the organization of libraries for their own use by trade-unions in J. R. Commons *et al.*, *History of labour in the United States* (New York: Macmillan, 1935), Vols. I and II. The existence of these libraries was used by supporters of the library movement in their argument that the public library would "woo" the worker away from the union's library, where he was thought to be subjected only to union propaganda. There is also some indication that the more class-conscious of the workers suspected the library, as an institution which might be used against them by their capitalist enemies.

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 144.

⁷ "Social reform, education, and the library, 1850-1900," *Library quarterly*, IX (1939), 184.

⁸ A. K. Borden, "The sociological beginnings of the library movement," *Library quarterly*, I (1931), 282.

the laboring class as one of the social causes of the origin of the library.⁹

These writers make it clear that the library movement was intimately associated with the establishment of the public educational system. Since the history of the educational movement is better documented than that of the library movement, an indication of the attitude of labor toward public education will serve to bring out our point of inquiry.

Here the case is clear: American labor has been one of the firmest champions of American public education. The reason is not difficult to find: the laboring man, desiring free public schools for his children, has constantly sought to expand and improve the public educational resources of the country. The first study specifically in this field, Frank Tracy Carlton's *Economic influences upon educational progress in the United States, 1820-1850*, concludes:

The altruistic theory of the development of the United States public tax-supported school system seems in the light of the facts to be utterly inadequate to account for the phenomenon. . . . The vitality of the movement for tax-supported schools was derived not from the humanitarian leaders, but from the growing class of wage-earners.¹⁰

Numerous quotations could be cited to establish what is now, I think, generally acknowledged to be true, viz., that American labor has consistently and strongly supported the extension and improvement of American education. For example, it is largely because of the activity of organized labor that federal aid to libraries is closer at this writing than at any previous time. The influence of the American Federation of Labor was instrumental in establishing the original President's Committee on Vocational Education, which was later expanded into the Advisory Committee on Education through whose report federal aid for libraries may become a reality. Several members of this committee, including its chairman, were members of labor unions, and

⁹L. V. Ballard, *Social institutions* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936), p. 230.

¹⁰Bull. University of Wisconsin 221 ("Economics and political science series" [Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1908], Vol. IV, No. 1), pp. 121-22.

both the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O. are actively supporting its recommendations.

If it is asked why, if labor is such a friend of public education, it does not support library extension without labor affiliation by librarians, one answer is, as already indicated, that it does; the main answer to the point of the question, however, is that the labor movement has not been made sufficiently aware of the library and its problems. Labor strongly supported public education, and that before any teachers were affiliated with the labor movement, because it was vitally concerned with public education; it has not yet been made sufficiently concerned with the public library.¹¹ Upon occasion, when the need for library service has been brought to the attention of labor, it has not hesitated to give its support. For instance, in 1926 George F. Bowerman, librarian of the Washington, D.C., Public Library, contributed an article on "The free public library; its possibilities as a public service agency" to the *American federationist*,¹² the A.F. of L. organ. In the same issue appeared an editorial headed "Funds needed for library service," presumably written by the president of the federation:

A public library is a necessary part of the educational equipment of every city. . . . Surely such an allowance [the A.L.A. minimum of one dollar per capita] for a service that extends to such groups and varied needs is a most constructive expenditure. Labor organizations and especially local committees on education throughout the jurisdiction of the A.F. of L. are urged to do their utmost to promote generous appropriations for library purposes. Make it your duty to find out the amount apportioned for library purposes in your community and compare this with the minimum maintenance standard recommended by the American Library Association. If your local appropria-

¹¹ "Perhaps the strangest gap in the corporate relations of our public libraries has been their almost total failure to get into touch with labor unions. To ignore the unions in the present age is to cut ourselves off from one of the strongest and most vital forces moving in our social cosmos. . . . Labor is undoubtedly going to secure a shorter working day than has been customary. Those hours released from toil must be spent somewhere. . . ." (W. W. Bishop, "The library and post-school education," in his *The backs of books and other essays in librarianship* [Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1926], pp. 248-49). (It is interesting to note that this was originally written in 1919, when the first American library-union movement was at its height.) See also R. R. Munn, "Organized labor and the library," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXIII (1939), 11-13, 50.

¹² XXXIII (1926), 578-84.

tion falls short you are urged to do whatever may be necessary to secure larger appropriations.¹³

Existing library unions are unanimous in reporting that they have never failed to receive the active support of labor when they have asked for it. The point is not that affiliation is the price of labor's support but rather that through affiliation librarians will maintain an intimate relationship by means of which they will be able to bring library matters to labor's attention and to see that they are given the proper support potentially available.

The conclusion is, then, that American education and librarianship and the American labor movement have similar interests with regard to the expansion and improvement of educational opportunities of all kinds and that there is every reason to believe that library unions will get encouragement and support from American labor in their efforts to expand and improve library service.

PROFESSIONAL AND GOVERNMENTAL UNIONS

In this section we shall trace the extent of unionization of professional workers and of governmental employees to determine whether, as is alleged, these two conditions of employment make impossible any advantages which in other circumstances accrue through union organization. In some cases, as will become evident, we shall be considering groups which combine these two conditions, just as do librarians.

First, let us look abroad. The labor movements of France and England are much older than the movement in the United States and have reached a "higher" stage of development. It is not unlikely that their experiences might throw some light upon our problem. What is the extent of professional and of governmental unionization abroad?

In France, "about 90 per cent of governmental employees and workers are unionized,"¹⁴ including teachers. This constitutes

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 532-33.

¹⁴ D. J. Saposs, *The labor movement in post-war France* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1931), p. 127.

the most highly organized labor group in France, the governmental employees being better organized even than workers in private industry.¹⁵ Just after the war, when the professional workers suffered excessively from the rise in prices, they took a leaf from the book of the manual workers, who in many cases were receiving higher salaries than they, and in 1920 organized the *Confédération des Travailleurs Intellectuels*. Although it is not affiliated with the general labor federation of France, this body operates as a bona fide trade-union and in 1923 had over one hundred and fifty thousand members¹⁶ in some eighty affiliated societies representing practically every intellectual occupation¹⁷ and including artists, writers, journalists, engineers, inventors, educators, and even doctors and lawyers. The success of this association prompted similar organization in most European countries at that time.¹⁸

Professional and governmental employees in England are only slightly less well organized. It was reported in 1937 that about 80 per cent of the civil servants were organized; included in this group is the Institution of Professional Civil Servants, formed in 1919 and now numbering about ten thousand members.¹⁹ Another professional union is the National Federation of Professional Workers, organized about 1917 and including over five hundred thousand workers in some twenty affiliated societies.²⁰ One of the most powerful unions in England is the National Union of Teachers which includes some 80 per cent

¹⁵ "Another significant trade-union phenomenon is the organization of so-called 'white collar' workers. . . . There are also unions of . . . salaried employees in general, who operate with as much success as the unions of other classes of workers. Non-manual, or salaried, employees . . . have shown since the War an increasing interest in union organization" (*ibid.*).

¹⁶ "A federation of brain-workers," *School and society*, XVII (1923), 388-90 (quoted from *London Times* educational supplement).

¹⁷ William MacDonald, *The intellectual worker and his work* (London: Jonathan Cape, 1923), pp. 290-95.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 298-99.

¹⁹ J. W. Bowen, "Trade unionism in the civil service," *Public administration*, XV (1937), 419-32.

²⁰ Cloudesley Breerton, "Intellectual combines in France and England," *Contemporary review*, CXXIV (1923), 213.

of the eligible teachers.²¹ This union is now nearly seventy years old and is one of the richest and most secure unions in England; it recently contributed \$50,000 toward the building of a new library for London University. Such unions are not affiliated with the English labor movement—the Trades Union Congress—for two important reasons, neither of which is operative in the United States: first, the T.U.C. is a political movement with its own political party as well as a trade-union movement; and second, many governmental employees were legislated out of the labor movement during the reaction following the general strike of 1926. There is, however, no question but that these groups are labor unions. The National Union of Teachers goes so far as to use the strike as a method of procedure, and a Professional Workers' Joint Consultative Committee has been set up between the T.U.C. and the National Federation of Professional Workers. It was reported in 1929 that 90 per cent of the members of this federation were affiliated with the T.U.C., although the parent organization itself was not.²²

All professional workers, of course, have their own trade-unions in the U.S.S.R. "Professors and scientific workers in museums, libraries and laboratories have a section of their own, with a membership (in 1927) of 14,000, organised in fifty branches in as many cities."²³

In the United States "the trade-union philosophy of organization has been accepted by an increasing number of professional groups in the past few years."²⁴ The depression convinced the professional workers in many fields that the same forces that had caused the manual worker to organize were operative upon him and that he might find his solution in the same way that the manual worker had found his. This is not to say that there were

²¹ E. V. Parker, "The National Union of Teachers of England: an address by the president of the N.U. of T. at the 1938 convention of the American Federation of Teachers" (pamphlet issued by the A.F. of T., 1938).

²² Trades Union Congress, *Sixty-first report, 1929*, pp. 121-23.

²³ Sidney and Beatrice Webb, *Soviet Communism: a new civilisation?* (New York: Scribner's, 1937), I, 212.

²⁴ U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of American trade unions, 1936 edition* ("Bulletin," No. 618 [Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1936]), p. 288.

no professional unions before the depression but rather that unionization was given impetus by it. Professional workers in large numbers decided that

they must accept limitation of their numbers, with consequent loss of needed services to the people, or they must bring organized pressure for extension of essential services which they are prepared to give. They are learning that not only is the economic welfare of the individual and hence of the group at stake, but the social basis of the professions itself is challenged.²⁵

It is always somewhat hazardous to estimate membership figures, but a conservative guess would be that there are now over three hundred thousand professional employees in trade-unions, most of them affiliated with either the A.F. of L. or the C.I.O. In such unions as the American Federation of Musicians and the Associated Actors and Artistes of America, both affiliated with the A.F. of L., the membership is an overwhelming majority of those eligible. (Both unions, it should be noted, are of relatively long standing.) In 1935 the American Federation of Musicians was the seventh largest union affiliated with the A.F. of L., and "both in 1934 and in 1935 the unions of workers in these [professional and white-collar] groups affiliated with the American Federation of Labor controlled 12 per cent of the total voting strength represented by national and international unions in the conventions."²⁶ Consideration of the fields into which professional unionization has entered bears further evidence on its extent and importance. Besides unions of musicians and actors there are now unions of teachers (American Federation of Teachers); architects, engineers, chemists (Federation of Architects, Engineers, Chemists, and Technicians; and the International Federation of Technical Engineers', Architects', and Draftsmen's Unions); research scientists (in the unions of governmental employees); newspaper men (American Newspaper Guild); social workers (Social Service Employees); workers in publishing offices (Book and Magazine Guild); motion-picture

²⁵ A. A. Hartwell and Caroline Whitney, "Professional workers unionize," *New republic*, XXCVI (1936), 42.

²⁶ U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of labor statistics, 1936 edition* ("Bulletin," No. 616 [Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1936]), p. 426.

actors, writers, and directors (Screen Actors Guild, Screen Writers Guild, and Screen Directors Guild); artists (United American Artists); radio performers (American Federation of Radio Artists); and concert artists (American Guild of Musical Artists). These unions are affiliated with either the A.F. of L. or the C.I.O. In 1934 was organized the Inter-Professional Association which developed "out of the realization on the part of professional workers, that individuals, even single organized groups, are unable to cope successfully with the general hazards to their social and economic welfare without coördination of their activities into a strong integrated nationwide organization which shall coöperate with the labor movement."²⁷

One could write at great length about these professional unions; here it is necessary to point out only that such unionization exists, and has existed, successfully, and that it is growing.

So much for professional employees. The unionization of governmental employees on all levels of government is even more extensive; about four hundred thousand are members of unions. Here again we find that unionization was stimulated by the depression, when governmental employees found themselves subject to much the same sort of economic insecurity as private employees. "One of the most important of the current personnel trends," says G. Lyle Belsley, an expert on public personnel problems, "is the increasing unionization of public employees. Not only are existing employee associations growing in membership, but new organizations are rapidly springing up in national, state, and local governments."²⁸

The desirability of unionization in the government service is indicated by the following quotations from recognized authorities in the field of public personnel.

Nearly every improvement in working conditions which is now an established standard in governmental employment was initiated outside the service and was not adopted by the state employer without organized labor

²⁷ Labor Research Association, *Labor fact book III* (New York: International, 1936), p. 120.

²⁸ "Personnel administration," in C. E. Ridley and O. F. Nolting (eds.), *Municipal yearbook, 1938* (Chicago: International City Managers' Association, 1938), p. 22.

playing its part in putting it through. Reference here is not so much to specific items as to general tendencies of which the particular item adopted is a manifestation.²⁹

The unions have already been a constructive force in American public administration, though their potentialities have not been realized in this respect. What is perhaps most needed is a change in attitude on the part of administrative officers, a willingness to accept the employees as partners in the enterprise.³⁰

So far as the history of our national government goes, it shows clearly that before the employees were organized and affiliated, Congress gave little attention to the salaries and conditions of employment of the government workers. . . . Unionization and affiliation have been the major factors in getting the Congress to give serious consideration to measures of vital concern to the public employees of the national service.³¹

Public apathy toward the vital problems of personnel administration practically forces the employees to take into their own hands the program of educating the public to a realization of the conditions in the public service. . . . Where bad personnel practices exist the employees, if they are organized, are the strongest force for bringing about the correction of defects.³²

None of the unions uses the strike as a method of advancing its interests, and most of them repudiate picketing or mass action. They work through negotiation, publicity and education, petitioning, and promotion of legislation. A glance at the record of their achievements indicates that these methods have proved effective.

Librarians have often claimed a community of interest with teachers, not without some justification. One reason for their similarity is in the nature of their employment conditions—both are professional workers and both, for the most part, are

²⁹ Sterling Spero, in *Proceedings of twenty-ninth annual meeting of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada* (Ottawa, Canada: Chateau Laurier, 1937), p. 66.

³⁰ W. E. Mosher and J. D. Kingsley, *Public personnel administration* (New York: Harper, 1936), p. 515.

³¹ Lewis Meriam, *Public personnel problems, from the standpoint of the operating officer* (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1938), pp. 279, 280.

³² Harvey Walker, *Public administration in the United States* (New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1937), p. 188.

public employees. Let us, then, give brief consideration to the teachers union—the American Federation of Teachers. In existence since 1916, this union experienced a rapid growth during the depression and now has about thirty-five thousand members; at its 1938 convention the national secretary-treasurer reported that “the A.F. of T. is at the present time one of the most rapidly growing unions in the American Federation of Labor.”³³ It is not only active in safeguarding the economic interests of its members but it is also concerned with educational policies, academic freedom, and similar matters. At present the federation is working for federal aid to education and is doing so in such effective manner as to prompt Floyd W. Reeves, chairman of the Advisory Committee on Education and himself a member of the teachers union, to say in a speech at the A.F. of T. convention: “We met with more than 300 groups during the course of the hearings on the Advisory Committee, and there was no group which gave us greater service, and I think no group which gave us as great service, as the representatives of the American Federation of Teachers.”³⁴ In what is probably the most thorough investigation made of the restraints on academic freedom in America, the federation’s record is summarized thus: “The fact, however, that the enemies of freedom for teachers are usually the same persons who are enemies of Labor makes joint opposition of teachers and Labor peculiarly effective. . . . The American Federation of Teachers is among national organizations of educators, at present in existence, the one really effective friend of freedom for teachers below college level.” And in a footnote: “In the college field there is the less effective A.A.U.P. [American Association of University Professors].”³⁵

³³ I. R. Kuenzli, “The state of the union: report of the secretary-treasurer to the 1938 convention of the A.F. of T.” (mimeographed report issued by the A.F. of T. 1938).

³⁴ *American teacher*, XXIII (September-October, 1938), 7.

³⁵ H. K. Beale, *Are American teachers free? An analysis of restraints upon the freedom of teaching in American schools* (“Report of the Commission on the Social Studies,” Part XII [New York: Scribner’s, 1936]), p. 711.

LIBRARY UNIONIZATION

In this section we shall consider the extent of library unionization, noting first the unionization of English librarians, then library unionization in the United States from 1917 to 1919, and finally the current library-union movement.

The librarians of municipal public libraries in Great Britain are unionized.³⁶ They are members of the National Association of Local Government Officers, an organization of over one hundred and five thousand municipal employees. Librarians are members of the local branches of the association, together with accountants, engineers, clericals, and other administrative and professional employees of the municipalities. All grades of librarians are eligible to membership, and "the overwhelming majority have joined N.A.L.G.O. . . . [The association] deals with their conditions of service, e.g., salaries, sickness allowances, working hours, holidays, etc. Their purely professional problems are dealt with by the Library Association."³⁷ Negotiations with local authorities are seldom conducted solely on behalf of one group, such as librarians, but rather include all departments of the municipal service. The N.A.L.G.O. maintains what is known as a Standing Joint Committee which includes most of the sectional and professional organizations connected with municipal government, and the Library Association (corresponding in the United States to the A.L.A.) is a member of that committee, along with such other bodies as the Association of Bath Superintendents, the Association of Managers of Sewage Disposal Works, the Museum Association, the County Surveyors Society, and the National Association of Cemetery Superintendents. Originally, the Association of Assistant Librarians was a member of the committee, but in 1931 "the name of

³⁶ I am indebted for much of the following information to Mr. L. Hill, general secretary of the N.A.L.G.O.

³⁷ Letter from Mr. Hill, dated Feb. 11, 1939. The association provides its members with legal advice, a correspondence institute, scholarships and educational loans, summer schools, special insurance facilities, holiday centers, recreational activities, several sorts of distress benefits, etc. It has funds exceeding \$20,000,000.

the Library Association [was] substituted for that of the Association of Assistant Librarians, as the latter is now a section with the Library Association."³⁸

The N.A.L.G.O. is not affiliated with the Trades Union Congress, but the question of such affiliation has often been raised. At a recent meeting "the thorny question . . . a matter which has been in the air, quite unofficially, for some time" was answered by the president of the association with the official view that the local government officers felt it was not proper to affiliate with the congress because in so doing it would be affiliating with a political party as well.³⁹ The T.U.C. and the N.A.L.G.O. maintain a joint committee on common problems, however, and have co-operated to their mutual benefit, especially on the matter of superannuation. There has been some animosity toward the association on the part of a few T.U.C. unions, but the congress has refused to withdraw from co-operation with it, the general secretary declaring that "'Nalگو' is already recognized as a bona fide trade union by many local authorities. . . . It has its conciliation machinery existing with practically every local authority in the country."⁴⁰ Another testimony to the nature of the N.A.L.G.O. is furnished by an editorial in the (English) *Librarian and book world and curator*:

American librarians appear to be exercised at the moment by the question of Unions or no unions. . . . "Union" is effected so far as librarians of public libraries are concerned by membership of the National Association of Local

³⁸ National Association of Local Government Officers, *Report 1931* (London: National Association of Local Government Officers, 1931), p. 37. I have been unable to ascertain the date on which the Assistant Librarians took out membership in the N.A.L.G.O., but I believe it was about 1920. Another form of staff organization in English libraries was reported in the 1931 survey of the Association of Assistant Librarians: "Staff Guilds flourish in but 17 libraries, although in many it is reported that the local branch of the NALGO is active enough to supply all the needs of the assistants in this direction. The Staff Guild functions excellently in large systems, and its advantages are known to all who are aware of the best examples" (p. 21).

³⁹ "N.A.L.G.O. and the T.U.C.," *Municipal journal and public works engineer*, XLVII (1938), 374.

⁴⁰ Trades Union Congress, *Sixty-eighth report, 1936*, p. 256.

Government Officers, itself a trade union although not of a particularly militant character.⁴¹

Continued and increasing membership of librarians in the association may well be considered sufficient proof of its power to get beneficial results for them; we have also the testimony of Charles H. Compton: "Probably the National Association, through its local guilds, has been the most important factor in raising salaries of municipal employees to proper standards and thereby improving the quality of municipal service."⁴² According to Mr. Compton, English librarians reported that the Association and its local chapters were administered on a high level and were quite fair in their negotiations with city officials in their efforts to improve the economic condition of municipal employees.⁴³

The first movement toward library unionization in the United States came in the years just before 1920 when economic forces generated by the World War were stimulating organization of workers in all fields.⁴⁴ If anything, these forces reacted more unfavorably upon librarians than upon most other groups, and unions were formed in five large eastern libraries—in the New York Public in May, 1917; in the Library of Congress in September, 1917; in the Boston Public in May, 1918; in the

⁴¹ "Trade Unions," *Librarian and book world and curator*, XXVII (1937), 2. I was unable to find specific mention of the status of French librarians with regard to unionization, but it seems likely that they are organized in the strong Confédération des Travailleurs Intellectuels or in the governmental unions.

⁴² "Report on personnel in English libraries," *Library journal*, LX (1935), 919-20. A leaflet issued by the Library Association in June, 1934, containing its recommendations on salaries and conditions of service states that "the recommendations are based largely upon those of the National Association of Local Government Officers."

⁴³ Early agitation for unionization is indicated in this quotation of 1918: when the Library Assistants' Association was formed "there were amongst librarians those who regarded the movement with suspicion as rather smacking of trades-unionism. . . . Historically, there is something to favour the theory that such affiliation is advantageous. The library assistants at Bristol joined to the National Union of Clerks, and, were through representations of that body, advanced in their salaries. We understand too, that the staff—or part of it—at Manchester libraries has adopted a similar course, but with what results we do not know." ("Trade unionism and library workers," *Library world*, XX [1918], 200).

⁴⁴ It may be of incidental interest to librarians that bookbinders were among the first workers to unionize in the United States, over a hundred years ago.

Washington, D.C., Public in October, 1918; and in the Philadelphia Public in June, 1919. All five were affiliated with the A.F. of L.—the Washington and Library of Congress unions through the National Federation of Federal Employees and the other three directly by federal charter.

The question of unionization aroused as much interest and excitement in library circles in those days as it does today, if one may judge from the tone of the library literature on the subject. One whole session of the Trustees and Administration Section was given over to the issue at the 1919 conference of the A.L.A.; the official proceedings reports that there had been "added to the program the topic of the unionization of library staffs and this announcement heightened the zest of interest."⁴⁵ The account of the meeting takes some ten pages in the subsequent report in the A.L.A. *Bulletin*. The functions and the purposes of two of the unions were outlined by their members, and a few library administrators spoke on the problem. Arthur E. Bostwick, then librarian of the St. Louis Public Library, believed that the main question was the extent to which library employees should participate in library management; he believed that they should participate, that they did, that such participation was growing in a proper evolutionary way, and that it would be quite undesirable to have a revolutionary intrusion upon it.⁴⁶ The only administrator to speak for unionization was George F. Bowerman, librarian of the unionized Washington, D.C., Public; he pointed out that the Washington union was formed not by the members of the building force, or poorly

⁴⁵ "American Library Association Asbury Park Conference: Trustees and Administration Section," *Library journal*, XLIV (1919), 528.

⁴⁶ There are overtones here to the then-current Russian revolution. It is interesting to note that the connection between unionism and communism was being made then as now; for instance, Charles K. Bolton, librarian of the Boston Athenaeum, commenting on the union in the Boston Public wrote: "The obvious result will be to break down discipline, without which no great organization can be effectively managed. The librarian should be the executive officer. With the experience of Russia before our eyes it should not be necessary to use a column of argument to justify orderly government. . . . If these young women are to be taken at their own estimation in fixing salaries and assigning tasks and not on the judgment of the librarian, have we not reached a Russian standard of 'self-determination' in the Boston Public Library?" ("Library union organized in Boston," *Library journal*, XLIII [1918], 411).

trained assistants who had not been promoted because of poor work,

but [by] the best educated and best trained members of the staff. . . . In most cases the library, if it really wants to advance through the means of having larger appropriations, especially for better salaries, might well promote the formation of unions, thereby getting union labor as a whole lined up to help the library in its efforts to give good service—efforts which are now so often thwarted by inadequate salaries.⁴⁷

There were two main arguments made against library unionization at this time: the first was that "it has from time immemorial been the rule among professional men and women that an organization of themselves to advance wages is unprofessional and undignified."⁴⁸ and the second was that unionization would mean intrusion into what is exclusively the chief librarian's province—the administration. The "dating" of these arguments and their current weight are indicated by the facts that the A.L.A. itself is now directly concerned with library salaries and that the extension of democratic administration is generally regarded as desirable.

Of the four unions in public libraries the one at Washington was undoubtedly the most successful. It formed a branch of the National Federation of Federal Employees, then affiliated with the A.F. of L., which included other librarians in federal employment, affiliated through the branches in their own departments, and, of course, the Library of Congress union. About 75 per cent of the Washington staff were members of the union which was acknowledged by the chief librarian to be simply, thru another channel of influence, trying to accomplish the very things for which the trustees and librarian have been striving by means of official representation. If possible, it has made the members of the staff more sympathetic than ever with the administration thru better appreciation of the difficulties which must be met.⁴⁹

Mr. Bowerman himself attested to the achievements of the unionization of his staff with respect to improvements in salary

⁴⁷ "Catalog Section—Trustees Section," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XIII (1919), 378.

⁴⁸ Bolton, *loc. cit.*

⁴⁹ G. F. Bowerman, "Unionism and the library profession," *Library journal*, XLIV (1919), 365.

conditions and reclassification of positions; and Miss Clara Herbert, then as now a member of the staff, writes:

A large proportion of the staff of the library joined the Federation . . . and profited greatly by the influence that the Federation carried in connection with the reclassification of positions and salaries. For a number of years after the reclassification act went into effect in 1924, various members of the library staff kept individual memberships in the Federation out of gratitude and loyalty for what had been accomplished. Little by little, however, there seemed no problems that concerned the library and the members dropped out one by one. . . . Later when the library unit ceased, many joined the unit of District Government employees. The library then felt that membership in the union was entirely appropriate because of its high grade clientele including many professional workers and because it worked primarily in the interests of the Government service.⁵⁰

Not so much can be said for the other three public library unions, although both the Boston and New York unions claimed that certain improvements in staff conditions had been made following their formation. Nothing is known of the Philadelphia union and little more of the Boston union, except that in 1919 its secretary claimed that 42 per cent of the "entire force" were members.⁵¹ The membership of the New York union was largely restricted to the lower grades in the library service and, although it was not so effective as the Washington union, it managed to make more library headlines. It introduced two resolutions at the 1919 A.L.A. conference, one decrying discrimination against women in the profession and the other a general resolution which the union had submitted to the American Federation of Labor convention that year, and which had there been passed, calling for better salaries and working conditions, the right to organize, civil service, union representation on matters dealing with it, and union-labor representation on library boards. Many of the statements made by this union were challenged by others concerned; all in all, the union fared rather badly in the library press. From the few records of its actions which we have it is fair to say, I think, that the leadership of this union was hardly adequate to the needs of the situation.

⁵⁰ In a letter dated April 7, 1939.

⁵¹ C. A. S. Fazakas, "Library employees' union," *Library world*, XXI (1919), 179.

The Library of Congress union has existed continuously since its organization in 1917; a full report on it is included below. As already indicated, the Washington union disbanded after the achievement of its purposes. There is no record of the dissolution of the other unions, but it is quite certain that they did not last beyond the early 1920's. Besides the general forces which decreased all union membership in the country, there were, perhaps, special considerations—such as poor leadership and the overwhelming strength of the opposition—which operated to hasten the death of the three unions.

The next movement toward library unionization with labor affiliation did not come until 1934, but in the intervening fifteen years several staff associations were engaging in protective activities. Probably the outstanding example of such activity is the successful 1925 campaign of the New York Public Library staff association which resulted in an added appropriation of \$350,000. The campaign was conducted entirely and independently by the staff association, "a genuine 'industrial' organization with an active labor unionist on its executive board, and comprising in its membership of nearly a thousand not only librarians of all grades, but also printers, bookbinders, chauffeurs, porters and janitors."²² Two current examples are the campaign of the United Staff Associations of New York to improve the economic status of librarians in that city and the activities of the Boston Library Club which was organized in 1936 by the employees of the Boston Public Library specifically to deal with problems of low salary and other working conditions. This organization seems to have every characteristic of a union except that of broad labor affiliation (although it is affiliated with the Central Council of City and County Employees), and its members feel that it has proved effective in furthering their interests. In 1937 and again in 1938 employees were given general pay raises, the first since 1925, and in 1937 a twenty-dollar weekly minimum was established. This organi-

²² Elizabeth Stuyvesant, "Waking up Father Knickerbocker," *Library journal*, L (1925), 997. "Another result, peculiarly interesting and significant, is the awakening of the members of the staff to a consciousness of their value in the library system and to a realization of the great accomplishments possible thru united action" (*ibid.*, p. 999).

zation can properly be considered to be a library union, and it is only the somewhat narrower concern of this article with those unions with wide labor affiliation that keeps us from so considering it.

The recent interest in unionization arises to a large extent from the influence of the depression. Librarians have sought to organize in several ways to counteract the effect of the depression upon salaries and other working conditions; for instance, as many staff associations were formed in the six years following 1930 as in the fourteen years preceding 1930, and nearly half of those formed from 1930 through 1936 were founded in 1936.⁵³ The organization of library unions with labor affiliation needs to be seen to some extent as part of this general reaction of librarians and other professional workers to certain aspects of the depression. Many librarians formed staff associations to function in part as their collective machinery, and others, believing the isolated staff association to be relatively ineffective, formed bona fide unions and sought labor affiliation to strengthen their position. It is impossible to secure exact membership figures for such unions, but a reasonable estimate is that the total library-union membership is something over seven hundred. Some librarians in the federal employ, and outside the Library of Congress, are members of their departmental unions; and some librarians in schools and colleges are members of the American Federation of Teachers. In New York, for instance, some high-school librarians are members of Local 5, and some college librarians are members of the New York College Teachers Union—both affiliated with the A.F. of T. The former group formed a Librarians Committee of that local in October, 1938, and have outlined a comprehensive program of activity involving requirements for high-school library positions, increased staffs, adequate funds, censorship, co-operation with teachers, and progressive library policies generally.⁵⁴ Representatives of

⁵³ H. T. Ziegler, "The staff association picture, 1936," *Library journal*, LXI (1936), 941-44. The figures are: 1916-19, five staff associations formed; 1920-29, ten; 1930-35, eight; and 1936, seven.

⁵⁴ Elizabeth French, "A progressive library program," *New York teacher*, IV (January, 1939), 12.

the College Teachers Union recently discussed working conditions of the staff with the administration of the New York University Library, of whose staff slightly over one-third are members of the Teachers Union.⁵⁵ But, of course, most union librarians are members of the affiliated unions.

There are now six library unions—two in the Library of Congress and one in each of the public libraries of Butte, Cleveland, Milwaukee, and Chicago. Three of these are affiliated with the C.I.O.—the Library of Congress union through the United Federal Workers of America and the Cleveland and Chicago unions through the State, County and Municipal Workers of America. Two are affiliated with the A.F. of L., the Butte union directly by federal charter and the Milwaukee union through the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees. The other Library of Congress union is a local of the National Federation of Federal Employees, formerly affiliated with the A.F. of L. but now independent of it. This union has been in continuous existence since 1917—until 1937 as a branch of another local and since then as a local in its own right. The Butte union was organized in January, 1934, and the others in 1937. A union in the Grand Rapids Public Library, also affiliated with the A.F. of L. through the A.F.S.C.M.E., was organized in September, 1937, but owing to unsatisfactory local conditions it became inactive in September, 1938.

Although it was to be expected, it is interesting to note that the unions in the four public libraries were formed in cities which are considered "good union towns," and that the other two have ample precedent in the well-unionized federal service. All the unions repudiate the use of strikes and picketing and rely on negotiations, promotion of legislation, petitioning, and similar methods of procedure.

Of the unions in the public libraries⁵⁶ two are officially recog-

⁵⁵ "Teachers union confers with executives of the library," *Library staff news of the New York University Libraries*, I (1939), 23-24.

⁵⁶ For much of the information which follows, I am indebted to representatives of the unions concerned, including Ruth Shapiro, president of the Milwaukee union; Elizabeth French, chairman of the Librarians Committee, A.F. of T. Local 5; A. B. Korman,

nized by the library administration, and the other two are given tacit recognition through exchange of correspondence and auditing by union delegates of meetings of the library board. Significantly, the two unions which maintain the most friendly relations with their administrations are located in libraries whose boards include labor unionists. All four of the unions co-operate actively with labor in its broad social objectives, and two co-operate with Labor's Nonpartisan League. Eligibility for membership is broad: chief librarians are excluded, but department heads are not. Two unions admit all grades within the library, including the custodial staff; in the other two libraries the custodial staffs maintain their own unions. Two of the libraries have staff associations as well as unions; one of them, at Cleveland, was organized after the formation of the union, and both it and the other, at Chicago, have been stimulated by the activity of the unions. Three of the four public-library unions and the Library of Congress C.I.O. union issue regular publications: Milwaukee, "MPLEU news"; Cleveland, "Library union news"; Library of Congress, "Off the shelf" (all mimeographed); and Chicago, *C.P.L. union news* (printed). These publications contain both union and professional material. The Chicago and Cleveland unions sponsor lectures and forums on social and professional problems. All the unions are members of the Staff Organizations Round Table of A.L.A., except the N.F.F.E. local in the Library of Congress. A brief report follows on each library union.

1. *Butte*.—This union was formed in January, 1934, after the library board had voted to close the library because of lack of funds. Several members of the staff, feeling "that our profession embodied the trust of the community that the library should function all of the time,"⁵⁷ decided to unionize in order to gain the active support of organized labor. The city labor council did not know of their organization until it received

president of the Chicago union; David R. Wahl, president of the Library of Congress C.I.O. union; and Robert W. Cushman, secretary-treasurer of the Library of Congress N.F.F.E. union.

⁵⁷ Elizabeth McDonald, "The first librarians' union," *Wilson bulletin*, X (1936), 675.

notice from national A.F. of L. headquarters that a charter had been granted. With the aid of labor, county support for the library was enlisted, in return for which the library gave county service. This support has resulted in a debt-free library with a full-time staff, restoration of predepression salaries, and other minor advantages. The union is eager to point out that it "was not formed for material gains although we have gained by it. The union has been functioning since 1934 and up to date a question of wages has not been discussed."⁵⁸ The union is consulted in library matters by organized labor in the region. Its official title is Librarians' Union No. 19178, affiliated directly with the A.F. of L.

2. *Cleveland*.—This union was first chartered in May, 1937, as a local of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees of the A.F. of L., but in August, 1937, it changed its affiliation to the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C.I.O.), of which it is now Local 154. It was formed specifically because of low salaries and "undesirable methods of administration," including unsystematic procedure in promotions and vacations and undue concentration of authority. The union points out that eleven days after the first public meeting of the union the administration organized a staff association; the existence side by side of the two groups has not made for harmonious staff relations. A change in administration has recently taken place, and the new librarian is friendly to the union, as are some members of the rather liberal board of the library. The union claims responsibility for the following specific accomplishments: increase of \$120,000 in the 1938 library budget, specifically allotted for salary raises; increase in the minimum salary of pages from fourteen cents to twenty-five cents an hour, except for junior high school pages who have a twenty-cent minimum; vacation and sick-leave increases for those relatively low. Union representations on behalf of a discharged employee were rejected by the librarian and the board. The union sponsors a lecture series on social and professional problems and recently helped to organize a credit union for the

⁵⁸ Elizabeth McDonald, "Number 19178," *PNLA quarterly*, I (1937), 25.

staff. It is now working for a signed personnel policy agreement with the administration.

3. *Milwaukee*.—In this library a staff association was organized in 1934. Several members who preferred to have an affiliated union, realizing that the majority was opposed to that, stayed within the group as it was. After two years a vote was held on unionization, and the union group lost; the vote was held again at the end of the third year, in 1937, and this time unionization won by a small majority and the staff association became a genuine union, affiliated as Chapter 14 of Local 2 of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (A.F. of L.). The library now has no staff association; the first president of the staff association became the first president of the union. The administration of the library is friendly to the union, and the two co-operate on many matters; for instance, the union actively supported the librarian's proposed changes in personnel classification (the library is under civil service) before a committee of the city council. "With the co-operation of the organized labor movement in the city [the union] received a five dollar increase for our pages in 1938, this in face of continued statements from the Common Council that there would be no increases for city employees."⁵⁹ The union has also secured various privileges for the staff, such as extra days off when a holiday falls within a vacation period. It recently appeared before the state legislature in opposition to a bill barring married women from public employment and is now working for a code of procedure for the library. Together with other unions of city employees the library union retains a legal advisor and a business agent, who keep it in touch with all municipal matters affecting the library and who represent it before the Civil Service Commission, the Common Council, and other bodies.

4. *Chicago*.—Poor conditions in the library, both economic and professional, are cited as reasons for its formation by this union, which was organized in October, 1937, and is now Local 88 of the State, County and Municipal Workers of America

⁵⁹ Ruth Shapiro, "The president summarizes," *MPLEU news*, 1 (1938), 1.

(C.I.O.). Relations between this union and the library administration have recently been improved with the attendance of union delegates at meetings of the board. The union has solicited the co-operation of the staff association from time to time, and last April the association agreed to a joint petition with the union asking the restoration of two weeks' pay deducted in 1931 and since restored in most other city departments. The union claims to have influenced the restoration of automatic increases stopped in 1931, the posting of civil service lists and resumption of appointments from long-standing lists, the granting of a half-day off weekly for the building force, adjustments in pay rates for holiday and overtime work, and the increase in the percentage of tax-anticipation warrants offered for sale. The union's current program involves increases in library appropriations and in the library staff, a raise from fifty to sixty dollars monthly for pages, and the establishment of more branch-library buildings. It has had two meetings with the mayor, and it participated in the first conference of the "A Better Chicago League," a local reform movement, which is to include library service in its program; the union later joined the league, whose treasurer was a member of the library board. As a result of union activity ten aldermanic candidates in the spring elections included improvement of library service in their campaign platforms. The union sponsors a lecture series on social and professional problems and is becoming through its publication something of a clearinghouse for library-union news.

5. *Grand Rapids*.—This is the union organized in 1937 but now inactive. Upon its formation as a chapter of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees of the A.F. of L. the union expected organization of certain other city departments to be effected. Such organization was not forthcoming, however, and the union, feeling the weakness of its position, decided to disband for the time being.

6. *Library of Congress*.—This library has had a particularly interesting experience with regard to unions. At different times it has had three different unions, of which two are now active. The first group was the Library of Congress branch of Federal

Employees Union No. 2, organized at the inception of the National Federation of Federal Employees of the A.F. of L. in 1917 and affiliated with that body until 1932. In that year after a disagreement with the A.F. of L. over its policy in a matter involving governmental workers the N.F.F.E. withdrew from the A.F. of L. and continued as an independent labor organization. Some of its members, however, wished to continue their A.F. of L. affiliation and later in 1932 organized the American Federation of Government Employees (A.F. of L.). A library union affiliated with this body was formed in the summer of 1932 and attracted many members from the N.F.F.E. local; at the time of the national convention in 1935 the A.F. of L. union in the Library of Congress, Local 18, had a membership of over a hundred.⁶⁰ It is reported that internal dissension and unwise policies weakened this union; in June, 1937, it surrendered its charter and disbanded. Some of its members joined the N.F.F.E. union and some the new C.I.O. union which was organized in August, 1937. These two unions are now active in the Library of Congress, the former more conservative and the latter more liberal.

The older union, which has been functioning since 1917, is officially titled the Federal Employees Union No. 626 of the N.F.F.E. Although it has been affiliated with the federation since its beginning in 1917, it actually preceded it, in that the local of which it was a branch from 1917 to 1937 was originally organized in March, 1916, and a year and a half later joined with other independent locals to form the National Federation. As has been indicated, two other major developments in the history of this union were its withdrawal from the A.F. of L. in 1932, along with its parent body, and its change in status from a branch to a local in 1937. The union has, of course, varied in strength throughout its twenty-two years, ranging in membership from under fifty to over two hundred; a few members of the original branch formed in 1916 have been members continuously since then. Most of the activity of the union is directed at the general employment problems of the federal service, in conjunc-

⁶⁰ See *Government standard*, IX (November 1, 1935), 2.

tion with its affiliates and through the N.F.F.E., and most of its achievements have been in those terms; however, it has also aided in salary adjustments and other grievances of the employees of the Library of Congress alone. Its methods are those of other governmental unions—petitioning, publicity, legislative proposals; “we can never afford to forget that we are public servants; thus we do not ask for things unless it can be shown they will benefit the government as well as the employees.” Relations with the library administration are cordial. All employees of the Library of Congress are eligible to membership in the union, which is also affiliated with the District of Columbia Federation of Federal Employees Unions.

The other union in the Library of Congress was organized in August, 1937, soon after the formation of its parent union and is officially constituted Local 28, Library of Congress, of the United Federal Workers of America (C.I.O.). The union is principally concerned at present with the reclassification of positions to conform to civil service standards. Its representatives appeared before the House and Senate appropriations committees this winter to request \$125,000 for salary increases and the creation of the position of classifier to make the desired adjustments in personnel classification; some \$30,000 was appropriated for increases, of which the union claims direct credit for an increase of about \$6,000. The House Appropriations Committee also “expressed the hope that the classification of positions in the library can be expedited as it is found that many inequities in salary scales exist. . . .”⁶¹ The union operates through publicity and petitioning for legislation and through co-operation with the Washington Industrial Council, the C.I.O. city labor council. It is only “tolerated” by the library administration; the chief librarian has refused to discuss union proposals, but subordinate officers have considered them.

⁶¹ See U.S. Congress, *Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Appropriations, U.S. Senate . . . on H.R. 4218* (the Legislative Establishment Appropriations Bill for 1940), for Tuesday, February 28, 1939, pp. 33 ff.

REASONS FOR UNIONIZATION

In order to understand the current library-union movement it is necessary to understand the reasons for which librarians have sought to form unions. In general, advocates of library unionization base their argument for its desirability on three main points: (1) unionization will improve the economic status of both the library and the librarian-employee; (2) it will extend the democratization of library administration; and (3) it will provide affiliation with a broad, constructive movement for concrete expression of social attitudes and desires.

It is unnecessary to cite evidence here to maintain the propositions that libraries are inadequately supported and that librarians are underpaid. Professional associations such as the A.L.A. and state and regional groups have been working for years for better financial support for libraries and for higher salaries for librarians but without noteworthy success. Advocates of unionization claim that such associations have been relatively ineffective in these financial matters and that they are altogether likely to remain ineffective as long as they lack the support of a continuous and powerful friend, which union affiliation provides. Not only would librarians be thus aided in securing larger funds to remedy immediate deficiencies, but they would also be able to shape the long-term attitude of organized labor toward the public library, despite the fact that they would be a distinctly minor group. Since the date of their labor affiliation (1916), the American Federation of Teachers has been a minority group, but

the pronouncements and policies of the American Federation of Labor upon these [educational] matters have been in substance the policies of the teachers' national union. Moreover, the whole program of labor has shown the influence of the teachers, a point noticed by [U.S.] Commissioner of Education Claxton when he attributed the well-stated educational program of labor to the "accession of the teachers."⁶²

⁶² P. R. V. Curoe, *Educational attitudes and policies of organized labor in the United States* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926), p. 139.

Library unions maintain that a similar opportunity awaits them.

Another phase of library administrative finance about which unionization is concerned involves the wide spread in library salaries and its implications. The accompanying table of salaries and index numbers of librarians and high-school educators in cities of over two hundred thousand population and of li-

TABLE 1
SALARIES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF EXECUTIVES AND ASSISTANTS IN HIGH
SCHOOLS AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN CITIES OF OVER 200,000
POPULATION AND IN THE FEDERAL LIBRARY SERVICE*
(ASSISTANTS = 100)

INSTITUTION AND POSITION	HIGH SCHOOLS		FEDERAL LIBRARY SERVICE		PUBLIC LIBRARIES	
	Teacher	Principal	Grade P-1	Grades P-5 through P-8	Professional Assistant	Chief Librarian
Salary.....	\$2,125	\$4,233	\$2,250	\$6,600	\$1,535	\$6,000
Index number	100	199	100	293	100	391

* Data for public libraries are for 1938, adapted from *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXIII (1939), 278. Chief librarian's salary is median; professional assistant's salary is the mean of the minimum and maximum figures in the median rank. Data for high schools are for 1937, adapted from *ibid.*, XXXII (1938), 271. Principal's salary is median; teacher's salary is mean of the minimum and maximum figures in the median rank. Data for the federal service are based on the mean rate, adapted from U.S. Personnel Classification Board, *Closing report of wage and personnel survey* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 120.

brarians in the federal service illustrates the disparity in the public libraries. It is important to note that the factor which causes the difference to appear so sharply is the relatively low salary of the rank-and-file library assistant.⁶³ A similar condition was reported in England a few years ago:

It will be noticed that the strong protest which had to be made in 1911 against the unfair difference in the salaries paid to chief officials and their deputies has had some effect, in that this difference, although it is in many

⁶³ For results of a study of salaries of executives and associates in several professions indicating a larger per cent difference between the salary of the chief librarian and that of a department head than between the salaries of comparable positions in other professions, see L. W. Bartlett and M. B. Neel, *Compensation in the professions* (New York: Association Press, 1933), p. 56.

cases still considerable, has in average decreased to some extent. . . . There is . . . a great need for improvement in this respect. . . .⁶⁴

At the time of this report, the salaries of assistants and chief librarians in British municipal libraries in cities of over two hundred thousand population were £264 and £762, respectively, with index numbers (comparable to those in the table) of 100 and 289.⁶⁵

When Miss Josephine Rathbone surveyed the salaries of over four hundred graduates of the Pratt Institute of Library Science in 1937 and compared them with salaries of similar surveys made in 1931 and 1934, she found that "the gains . . . have been largely in the higher salary brackets as compared with 1934. . . . In the lower levels the situation is distinctly less favorable. . . . The average salary of general assistants was \$1,395 in 1934, and that average was not raised by a single dollar in 1937."⁶⁶ The salaries in 1937 of librarians in administrative or executive positions, however, had increased over those of 1934 and approximated those received in 1931. Miss Rathbone concluded that

the efforts of the profession to raise salaries should certainly be centered for some time to come upon the lower brackets. It is not fair that the younger members should bear the burden. It will have a discouraging effect on the recruiting of able college graduates, and it will tend toward dissatisfaction and discouragement, and consequent unrest and agitation among those whose courage, enthusiasm and idealism should be our greatest professional asset.⁶⁷

It should definitely not be understood that advocates of unionization believe that the solution of the library's financial problems lies in the correction of whatever abuses exist here.

⁶⁴ F. S. Smith (ed.), *Report on the hours, salaries, training and conditions of service in British municipal libraries, 1931* (London: Association of Assistant Librarians, 1932), p. 23.

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 31. Figures are means for senior assistants, men and women, and for chief librarians in the three population groupings above 200,000.

⁶⁶ "The situation in 1937," *Library journal*, LXIII (1938), 256.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.* See also N. A. Unger, "Salaries in lower brackets need adjusting," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXIII (1939), 270-71.

(Some unionists, however, cite such evidence in reply to the contention that unionization is altogether materialistic. "If gold ruste, what shal iren do?") Rather they have been quick to realize that no proper solution is possible short of substantially increased library budgets, and the existing unions have exerted much of their effort in that direction.

Another reason for unionization which has been expressed by its advocates is embodied in the following quotations from experts on personnel problems:

Personnel management in the public service is literally leagues behind the standards that are accepted as sound by progressive managers in private enterprise . . . library service would stand below, rather than above, a median position with respect to the attitude toward and treatment of, library employees.⁶⁸

In the past, public administrators have been inclined to regard the employee organizations with suspicion, if not with outright hostility. . . . Co-operation can never be achieved until each side comes to regard the activities of the other with tolerance and understanding and to recognize the common aspects of their joint undertaking. . . . What is perhaps most needed is a change in attitude on the part of administrative officers, a willingness to accept the employees as partners in the enterprise.⁶⁹

Unionists maintain that a strong staff organization entirely independent of (though co-operative with) the administration is valuable in this regard for the administrator as well as the assistant in that it provides him with a clear and responsible channel of employee expression; to the extent that it functions properly it will serve to minimize the paternalism on the one hand and the tensions on the other that often disrupt administrative harmony. Employee consultation and representation on matters of policy are especially proper in the professions, say union advocates, and an independent staff organization provides suitable machinery for their functioning.

The final major reason advanced for unionization by its advo-

⁶⁸ W. E. Mosher, "Implications of an enlightened personnel policy," *Library journal*, LXII (1937), 849.

⁶⁹ Mosher and Kingsley, *loc. cit.*

cates is the opportunity given by labor affiliation for concrete expression of liberal and progressive social views. Librarians holding such views have been in the vanguard of the union movement, and most of them are members wherever unions are organized. They do not claim, of course, that organized labor has a monopoly on socially beneficial action or that everything done by organized labor is socially constructive, but they do believe that the interests of the labor movement lead toward "the fullest possible production and distribution of goods and services, the provision of leisure and the kind of satisfaction that leisure makes possible, and the preservation of the civil liberties."⁷⁰ They contend that this motivation is not unrelated to their professional status, since the improvement of general social conditions is definitely reflected in library conditions; furthermore, some library unionists consider the "interpretation" of the library to organized labor as one of their jobs. All in all, from their study of social forces such progressive librarians are convinced that the labor movement is a safeguard of democracy, and in the present continuing world-crisis they believe it is particularly important that democratic forces be strengthened in every way.

In addition to this reason for labor affiliation unionists believe it is desirable because it furnishes continuous, experienced, and friendly support for library needs. On the basis of the evidence of other professional and governmental employees they conclude that labor affiliation is more effective than the isolated organization of a staff association.

This, then, is the picture of library unionization. Labor's record in support of education indicates that its support of the extension and improvement of library service can reasonably be expected, and the status of professional and governmental unionization both here and abroad is testimony to its efficacy. (Some students even claim to see a trend in the direction of labor affiliation or of organization along trade-union lines on the part

⁷⁰ R. R. Brooks, *When labor organizes* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937), p. 330.

of professional and governmental employees, especially in light of the conditions in foreign countries.)

Advocates of unionization are unable, of course, to give definite assurances, in the sense of guaranties for the future, that unionization will benefit the library. They do claim, however, that given the proper leadership, the union movement may prove to be an important factor in the solution of one of the library's paramount problems—the securing of adequate financial support.

It is perhaps inevitable in the nature of the question that the desirability of library unions cannot be discussed with the same detachment as, say, the desirability of union lists or union catalogs. Many librarians have come from those classes of the population which have been suspicious of organized labor or even hostile to it and this condition, together with the enthusiasm of the advocates of unionization, makes difficult the rational and tempered discussion that the issue deserves. Librarians generally owe it to themselves and to the profession to give to the question of unionization the same dispassionate and careful study they would give to any other sincere proposal for the improvement and expansion of American library service.

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

BERNARD BERELSON was born in Spokane, Washington, on June 2, 1912. He received the A.B. degree from Whitman College in 1934, the B.A. in librarianship from the University of Washington in 1936, and the M.A. in English from the University of Washington in 1937. During the time he was a member of the staff of the University of Washington library (1936-38) he joined the campus local of the American Federation of Teachers. At present he is a student in the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. He is the author of "What price librarianship?" (*Wilson bulletin*, XII [1937], 13-16) and "Myth of library impartiality" (*ibid.*, XIII [1938], 87-90).

ALBERT PREDEEK, director of the library of the Technische Hochschule at Berlin, was visiting professor at the Iowa State College Library at Ames from February to August, 1937. Born in Westphalia, Germany, in 1883, he attended the Stadt. Gymnasium and Realgymnasium in Münster and the universities of Münster and Munich-Bavaria. He received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1906 and, after completing military service, he was employed in the library of the University of Münster (1909-10) and in the library of the University of Göttingen (1910-14). He took the state examination in librarianship at Göttingen in 1912. After the war he became director of the library of the Technische Hochschule at Danzig (1922-29). He was made director of the library of the Technische Hochschule in Berlin in 1929. Dr. Predeek has written book reviews and articles which have appeared in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* and in other periodicals.

COL. J. M. SCAMMELL describes his career as being divided equally between civil and military pursuits. He received his A.B. degree in 1915 from the University of California and lists among his activities for the first decade after his graduation: a year as teaching fellow in anthropology, service on the Mexican border with the Fifth California Infantry and the Twelfth U.S. Infantry, assistant in history and captain of infantry in the American Expeditionary Forces until 1919. After the war he was assistant in history and technical assistant at the U.S. Naval War College and graduate student in military history under Henry Spenser Wilkinson at Oxford University. The next decade was likewise divided between civil and military scholarship,

further graduate studies, teaching history, corresponding on naval maneuvers, graduating from the Command and General Staff Schools' course for National Guard officers, writing articles on military history and policy for military and general periodicals and the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, and active duty on the War Department General Staff and in the National Guard Bureau of the War Department, where he had charge of its historical activities and undertook a program for listing source materials for military history in the states. He joined the Historical Records Survey, when it was formed, as a field supervisor to have as a special charge the military records. That phase had not yet been reached when his services terminated July 15 of this year.

MAURICE F. TAUBER was born in Norfolk, Virginia, in 1908. He attended Temple University at Philadelphia from which he received the B.S. degree in 1930 and the Master's degree in sociology in 1939. In 1934 he took a B.S. degree from the School of Library Service, Columbia University. He has held various positions in the Temple University Library since 1927. From 1934-35 he was librarian of the Teachers College Library at Temple and, when that library was consolidated with the Sullivan Memorial Library, he was placed in charge of technical processes. He is now on leave of absence from that position while taking work in the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago. He is the compiler of *Russell H. Conwell, 1843-1925, a bibliography* (1935) and *Index to the theses and dissertations prepared at Temple University, 1908-1935* (1935) and the editor of *Proceedings of the first Regional Conference of Teachers of the Social Sciences at Philadelphia, 1929*.

EUGÈNE CARDINAL TISSERANT became a cardinal on June 15, 1936, and left the Vatican Library, although he remains a member of its board of directors. He is now Secretary of the Congregation for the Eastern Church. For additional biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 364.

THE COVER DESIGN

OF THE early life of Richard Harrison we know nothing. In 1559 we find that he was addressed as a master-stationer of London in the royal charter incorporating the Stationers' Company. Evidently his business was sufficiently brisk during the years 1559-61 to warrant his taking four apprentices, including the future printer, Henry Bynneman. Nor is this the only evidence of Harrison's prosperity. When he began to print, in 1560 or 1561, he was not forced to issue the small, quick-selling books which formed the stock of the average London stationer. He was able to finance the printing and publishing of bulky, standard works. In 1561 he issued, with Reynold Wolfe (each printing separate sections), the first English edition of Calvin's *The institution of Christian religion*, a book which, despite its size and cost, sold so rapidly that Harrison alone brought out a second edition in 1562.

Harrison's most important production was the well-illustrated folio Bible which he published in 1562. Although he had license to print only the New Testament in quarto, he printed the entire Bible and, rather impudently, stated on the title-page that he had a royal privilege to publish it. Apparently the only penalty he suffered for this action was an eight-shilling fine, for in the same year he was elected warden of the Stationers' Company. In 1563, during his term of office, he died.

His mark is a rebus on his name. William Camden describes it, in his *Remaines concerning Britaine*, as "an Hare by a sheaf of rye in the sun for Harrison." The two "RI's" probably stand for "Richard" and for "Rye." This punning device was copied by later Harrisons—some of whom doubtless were descendants of Richard—who entered the London book trade.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

REVIEWS

Current issues in library administration: papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 1-12, 1938. Edited with an Introduction by CARLETON B. JOECKEL. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xii+392. \$2.00.

Since the publication of Learned's *The American public library and the diffusion of knowledge*, no work has come to this reviewer's attention with more of meat in it and more of stimulus for the administrator of a large public library than *Current issues in library administration*. Though lacking the former's unity and comprehensive point of view, it brings the ripe judgment of many authors who are experienced in library administration or who, as teachers or students in other fields of public administration, have thought on problems of basic importance in the management of libraries.

These eighteen papers by fourteen different authors were presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago in August, 1938. Edited and with an Introduction by Dr. C. B. Joeckel, they form a third volume of Library Institute papers. They do not present a rounded treatise on library organization or administration but rather, as the title implies, they present certain phases of library administration of current interest or importance. It must not be assumed, however, that the book is of temporary importance. The topics discussed are of perennial interest and the approach of the authors has been from a broad and long-time view though with the benefit of the newer scientific techniques. While of greatest value to librarians of public libraries (who need it most), it will prove helpful to anyone who has administrative responsibility in any type of library.

To this reviewer the most useful of the chapters are those relating to organization phases of administration, including the discussions by Dr. Reeves; the very practical chapters by Mr. Metcalf and Miss Warren on organization practices in various large libraries of the country; Mr. Ulveling's on branch systems; and the discussions on personnel work. This is chiefly for the reason that hitherto these important topics have been neglected in library literature. Miss Warren's comprehensive chapter on the management of medium-sized libraries and Donald Coney's discussion also touch upon the basic problems of organization and personnel. Chapters on institution finance and public relations techniques by specialists in these fields and by practicing librarians are also included.

Dr. Carnovsky's discussion of measurements in library service started us off

on some contrariwise thinking. He criticizes with much reason the inadequacy of present standards and measuring methods in book stocks and book circulation. His substitute methods, though interesting, hardly get us very far, however, because of the fundamental difficulty in attempting to measure the unmeasurable.

To replace the time-honored quantitative measurement of circulation, a qualitative measure is suggested. Books are evaluated by grading them on perhaps six different qualitative levels. A single loan of Lippmann's *Good society* might be scored at six, and books by Ludwig and Temple Bailey, respectively, at three and one. Aside from the fact that this plan does not admit of very subtle grading, it does not go far enough. The value of the service rendered in the lending of a book depends also upon the quality of the person doing the borrowing. We should classify our borrowers on a quality basis (six levels shall we say?) as well as the books they borrow. The withdrawal of *The education of Henry Adams* in its days of "best sellerdom" by a moronic clubwoman unable to get beyond the title-page was scarcely a social service. Per contra, the withdrawal of a mediocre book may be invested with greater importance because of the nature of the need or the capacity of the inquirer. Bryant's translation of the *Iliad* should rate higher as poetry than as a pony.

We should correct also for books taken out but in fact not read, and give credit for multiple readings. After all, the family is still a frequent unit in society and many a library book is read by father and mother, Uncle George, Cousin Sue, and the neighbors before it gets back to the shelves.

Then, who is to evaluate the books as to quality? Any valuation will necessarily be subjective. If done for each library individually, comparisons between libraries will have little value; if done by a central rating agency, there will be a considerable time lag and the current books will remain unvalued or temporary local judging must be resorted to. Moreover, books may lose (or gain) in value as times and conditions change.

Several of the contributors are worried by the fact that library processes and decisions and measurements are not scientifically objective. This crops up especially in discussions on personnel work. Real attention to personnel problems in libraries and a scientific approach are much needed now. The discussion in this volume and Miss Clara W. Herbert's *Personnel administration in public libraries*, just published by the A.L.A., are, for this reason, especially welcome. It is a mistake to assume, however, that the subjective approach can or should be eliminated now. Various of the writers comment upon the notable library staffs brought together by Mr. Anderson at Pittsburgh and New York and by Mr. Brett at Cleveland. Both of these men built up these staffs largely without benefit of personnel techniques or procedures. Their method was a subjective one. They were interested in acquiring a strong staff, in getting the best-equipped people, and because of their skill in the

selection of staff members their libraries became notable for the quality of their work.

After all, while administration and personnel work are sciences, they are also arts. In so far as they are arts the subjective method of the artist must be used. While this review was in preparation, the second of the Mayo brothers of Rochester, Minnesota, died. It would be hard to imagine the selection of the Mayo Clinic staff on any other basis than that of personal selection by the organizing genius at the head. We may be sure that the Mayos checked carefully the capacities of the staff members that they appointed, but we doubt that they depended much on mechanized civil service and personnel techniques so highly stressed now. Selection of staff personnel is a subjective process similar to the selection of books for a library. There is need for business procedures in the ordering of books and the hiring of staffs, but the highest phases of selection in both cases are necessarily based on someone's personal judgment.

Dr. Waples' strictures in the final chapters are timely and should make practicing librarians more concerned to see that all that they provide can be justified on the score of its promising wholesome recreation and sound education. With the rapid increase in the number of shoddy books full of false moral values, pseudoscience, sloppy writing, and sloppier thinking, and with a parallel increase in the need for a soundly informed public, the problem of popular book selection is gaining new seriousness. There are clear indications that libraries are facing a time of funds utterly insufficient for all the service that "the public wants." They may be forced soon into a position where they will be concerned primarily with a circulation upon a qualitative rather than a quantitative basis, without, however, trying to set up measuring instruments to translate this quality into a number. The lark is more than skin and bones and a countable number of feathers.

But we have belabored a minor point too hard. Sufficient to say, all power to those who are studying, teaching, and practicing the science of library administration, if they will but remember that it is also an art and most so in its finest manifestations. In the other arts we rely upon critics to evaluate for us. No scientific apparatus has been discovered by which to determine the greatness of a symphony, a painting, a cathedral, or a poem, though, to be sure, they all exemplify laws of mathematics and physics. Rating is relative and subjective. Perhaps we need such critics also in the library field. Indeed, I think I see the beginnings of this need being filled. Alvin Johnson's recent monograph, *The public library—a people's university*, and Dr. William Munthe's penetrating study of American libraries, *American librarianship from a European angle*, are current examples. In the recent recognitions accorded to Messrs. Joeckel, Wilson, Putnam, and Miss Mary U. Rothrock the juries used the methods of judgment that pertain to the arts. The awards in the case of these four have met with very general approval, and yet they do

not have the same satisfying objective finality as does the winning putt by a master of the golf links.

This reviewer belongs to the group of teachers of library administration courses which are, to quote Dr. Joeckel, "little more than omnibus groupings of more or less related topics which do not fit into any of the more clearly defined or organized courses" or, to quote Mr. Coney, courses which are "catchalls" for the "odds and ends of useful information not included in the technical courses." It will be a relief to this instructor, at least, and a distinct service to his students, to have available these well-thought-out and ripe discussions in a field where printed sources, until very recently, were so lacking. Equally useful will be the many suggestions for further study. The appended bibliographies are excellent throughout, as the references are carefully chosen and decidedly up to date.

This volume should be of the greatest help to librarians in the making and to librarians in service to increase their knowledge of the science of managing a library and to perfect themselves in the art.

CARL VITZ

Minneapolis Public Library

Lexikon des gesamten Buchwesens, Band III: *Petreiis-Zyprische Schrift Register*. Herausgegeben von KARL LOFFLER und JOACHIM KIRCHNER unter Mitwirkung von WILHELM OLBRICH. Leipzig: Karl W. Hiersemann, 1937. Pp. [iii] + 760.

The first and second volumes of this work have already been noticed by the present writer in the pages of the *Library quarterly*, VII (1937), 146-47; and VIII (1938), 418. With the appearance of this third and final volume little remains to be said in the way of general comment except to reiterate and re-emphasize one's earlier expressions of admiration for the excellence and the usefulness of the work. Its conception was a master-stroke of scholarly statesmanship, grounded in a professional culture uncontaminated by the trivialities of vocationalism; its execution, a demonstration of the resources and abilities which can be built up by a people who regard learning seriously—for its own sake and not merely as an instrumentality of convenience for the general public or as a skill by which certain individuals may win a reputation or earn a livelihood. Moreover, in a day when such hard things are being said of Germany, a book like this is doubly welcome to those who still love the German spirit and admire German culture: the work is valuable in itself and it is a refutation of the charge that German scholarship has become sterile.

The only new feature introduced in this final volume is the terminal table of classed subjects which reduces all the material included from the irrational and arbitrary sequence of an alphabetic order to a logical rearrangement. This will be a great convenience for those who wish to use the book for sys-

tematic study as well as for specific factual reference. Anyone who, like the present writer, has had experience with the excellence of the work for both of these purposes must regret that it is sealed away linguistically from so many English-speaking students. American and British librarians should either translate this general encyclopedia of bibliology from the German or else produce for themselves its equivalent in English. The importance of such a professional working tool is amply demonstrated in its reception by those who are able to use it in German: the publisher announces that it is already out of print, and that henceforth he offers his services only as a central agent for the exchange of secondhand copies.

PIERCE BUTLER

*Graduate Library School
University of Chicago*

A comparative study of cataloging rules based on the Anglo-American code of 1908: with comments on the rules and on the prospects for a further extension of international agreement and co-operation. By J. C. M. HANSON. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiv + 144. \$2.00.

It would be difficult to find a cataloger in Europe or America who is better fitted to undertake a comparative study of cataloging rules than Mr. Hanson. His forty-nine years of experience and interest in the subject, his editorship of the American edition of the 1908 Anglo-American code, and his renowned skill as a linguist have all contributed in making this volume a scholarly and practical reference tool. The book will not appeal to catalogers in small libraries, but large institutions should find it invaluable not only for consultation by catalogers but also for presenting to workers in other branches of library work the fundamentals of usage in cataloging entry. The spirit of co-operation among librarians has been fostered during the last sixty years by many publications and frequent international meetings, but complete international agreement about cataloging rules has by no means been achieved. Throughout this volume Mr. Hanson tries to point out why this is so, and for certain types of entry he suggests that it may never prove feasible to have uniform rules.

The basis of the book is the Anglo-American code. All the one hundred and seventy-four rules are taken up in the order of presentation in this code, paragraph by paragraph, beginning with the section on author entry and ending with the rule devoted to figures. With regard to each rule the agreement or disagreement of the eighteen other codes is stated. Whenever a code fails to mention the point involved, Mr. Hanson usually attempts to outline the probable procedure that would be followed. If another code agrees in the main with an Anglo-American rule but has certain deviations, such exceptions are noted.

The eighteen sets of catalog rules which are compared with the Anglo-American code represent the output of thirteen different nations and of the

Vatican Library. The languages used as a medium are only nine in number, since the English, German, French, and Italian languages are all represented by at least two codes. While the titles chosen for comparison are not of equal value from a cataloger's point of view, little fault should be found with Mr. Hanson's selection. Presumably, the *Règles et usages observés dans les principales bibliothèques de Paris* was considered more indicative of general cataloging practice in France than the better known *Usages suivis dans la rédaction du Catalogue général* of the Bibliothèque Nationale. It is also possible that the latter title was omitted because the pamphlet constitutes not so much a cataloging code as an explanation, for the benefit of new catalogers at the Bibliothèque Nationale, of the usage already being followed in the printed book catalog of that library. The British codes included are those of the British Museum and of the Cambridge University Library. There is no reason to question the first choice, but many catalogers may wonder why Cambridge was preferred to Oxford. The printed catalog of the Bodleian Library is exceedingly well known, and the Oxford rules have passed through a surprisingly large number of editions. A comparison of the latest editions of the Cambridge and Oxford rules reveals, however, that the Cambridge code is superior both as to the fulness of information supplied and as to the number of specific cataloging points covered. This is only an instance of Mr. Hanson's discriminating judgment.

Throughout the book the author has added valuable introductory statements to most of the individual rules; frequently he has also drawn a conclusion about the likelihood of international agreement in the face of sharp differences in practice in the various countries. For Part III, "Corporate bodies as authors," and Part IV, "Title entry," introductions of a general nature are provided. It is entirely logical that these parts should receive special treatment, since here more than in the other main sections the problem of entry is more complex, which fact leads to greater disagreement as to the handling.

Rule 112, for anonymous works, falls under Part IV, and here the codes of the German-speaking countries, in particular, differ so greatly from the Anglo-American practice that many sections have been translated in detail by Mr. Hanson. To a somewhat lesser extent this has been done for the Swedish, Spanish, and some other codes. In presenting these passages Mr. Hanson has followed the numbering of the original rules. Because the headings from the subsections of these codes have also been translated and inserted in the center of the page, it is sometimes difficult for the reader to discover just which code is being discussed. This is the case, for example, on pages 92-98, where there is a full translation of the *Instruktionen für die alphabetischen Kataloge der preussischen Bibliotheken* section on anonymous books. Interspersed with these rules are several headings for various subsections, so that the continuity is broken and the reader does not at once grasp the fact that all the points on these pages are from the *Instruktionen*.

This minor shortcoming is, however, offset by the fact that so much of the text of rules from several foreign countries has been included in this part of the book. Here an exact, detailed rendering of the original wording is especially appreciated because the rules for title entry in so many foreign codes include directions for the handling of government publications and the problem of selecting the main entry word for the filing of all sorts of titles. It is at the end of this discussion of anonymous works that Mr. Hanson makes what is probably his most pessimistic comment in the whole book: "It will be noted from this survey of the rules of entry of anonymous books that prospects for anything approaching an international agreement are not promising."

The author expresses regret that he did not have access to the latest edition of the Spanish code, the *Instrucciones para la redacción de los catálogos en las bibliotecas públicas del estado*, issued by the Junta Facultativa de Archivos, Bibliotecas y Museos of Spain. As a matter of fact, the *edición oficial*, printed in 1926, differs in no apparent way from the 1902 edition used by Mr. Hanson. Both the order of the rules and their content are substantially the same.

Rules of the English-speaking countries and those of the Teutonic and Romance nations are covered by the present comparative study. The author suggests that if the work proves of value the preparation of a supplementary volume might be considered. This would include other codes, particularly those from countries of eastern Europe and Asia. An analysis of these additional sets of rules would, of course, presuppose consultation with specialists in the lesser-known languages involved. Such a study would prove most welcome to catalogers in research libraries with large oriental collections, and it is hoped that Mr. Hanson may soon find it possible to begin such a compilation.

HARRIET DOROTHEA MACPHERSON

*School of Library Service
Columbia University*

Vitalizing a college library. By B. LAMAR JOHNSON. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xvii + 122. \$2.00.

Strange as it may seem, the most important word in the title of this discourse on library service at Stephens College is also the shortest. The book very definitely concerns *a* college library, and the list of implications so hopefully presented for the benefit of other colleges does not warrant using the definite article, even in the mind of the author, who warns the reader against the uncritical adoption of the Stephens College library program.

The program itself has been so extensively discussed in the library and educational press that no detailed description need be given here. Essentially a plan for decentralizing library service while maintaining a central administration, the divisional, dormitory, classroom, and personal libraries have been spread over the entire campus so that the librarian is able to say that all

the college buildings (excepting only the auditorium and the heating plant) have libraries. Thus the college and library administrations may be said to have succeeded in their objective of "making books a constant part of the student's environment."

That such ideal conditions should encourage reading and should vastly increase the use of books, as evidenced by library circulation statistics, was to be expected. That such increases as are described here are so phenomenal as to be just a little suspect should also have been anticipated. The picture is a little too fine, a little too much of a setup in the cause of library service. Libraries, if they are to find their proper place in the college program, must be judged carefully and realistically lest their place in the sun be exaggerated to their detriment. It is possible that Mr. Johnson, in his pardonable enthusiasm for a very admirable library experiment, has unwittingly allowed such exaggeration to find a place in this volume.

College faculties have long been clamoring for classroom libraries, a luxury that most college administrations have been unable to finance and most librarians, let it be admitted, unwilling to administer. That the faculty of a college that, with the aid of the Carnegie Corporation, has found it possible to provide classroom libraries should be highly in favor of them, is not surprising. Nor is the fact that a poll of students reveals an overwhelming majority in their favor over the general library plan. The statistics, however, are misleading in that the students queried have for the most part never used a general library exclusively and are therefore not qualified to answer the question. There is also the disturbing thought that they may be using the small classroom library to the exclusion of the general library. No evidence on either side of this point is presented.

Precisely the same consensus of unqualified student opinion was recorded in favor of the divisional libraries over the general library plan—427 students finding the divisional library more helpful, 31 regarding it as equally so, and 8 reporting it to be less helpful. It would have been interesting to ascertain the reasons for the 8 dissenting opinions and also the relative scholarship of the 8 students, but the anonymous nature of the inquiry made such analysis impossible.

The science-division library may be selected for special comment, since a table showing the library circulation of science books before and after the establishment of the division library in 1934 is given. Circulation figures for the years 1931-32 and 1937-38 show an increase in the circulation of science books from 828 to 4,469, an increase of 439.734 (*sic*) per cent. The implication is that the establishment of the science library accounts for this very substantial increase in the use of science books. But the figures do not substantiate the implication. The other libraries (including the general library) circulated 2,386 of the 4,469 science books circulated in 1937-38 and thus accounted for nearly half the increase. It is possible that the increase in the general library

circulation of science books was caused by the establishment of the science library and the ensuing more intensive use of science books, but no evidence in support of that conclusion is presented.

Quite a large portion of the Stephens College library program is concerned with the stimulation of "pleasure reading" through the maintenance of dormitory and personal libraries. The latter will bear some description, since the only footnote concerning them refers to an unpublished Master's thesis. The college library is making available to students requesting them personal libraries of ten volumes of their own choosing together with a suitable bookcase that also provides space for a lamp and a midget radio. The student's choice is guided by the librarian toward books of a more permanently useful nature and away from the lighter works of fiction that are available in the dormitory and other college libraries.

Some analysis is given of the kinds of books chosen for the personal libraries and also of the most popular books chosen from the dormitory libraries for "pleasure reading." The most popular titles, not so strangely, are concerned with the various kinds of etiquette so much stressed at Stephens, such as Moats, *No nice girl swears*, Hall, *College on horseback*, and *Vogue's book of etiquette*. Other popular titles include the standard classics and good modern fiction and lighter nonfiction. But socially significant fiction and nonfiction is almost entirely lacking. It seems that the students at Stephens, as evidenced by the reading they do for pleasure, are not concerned with the problems of the world about them. And there seems to be no evidence that the college library is doing more in the way of reading guidance than turning them away from *Gone with the wind* (requested by more than one hundred students) to *Vogue's book of etiquette* (in the personal libraries of forty-four students) and to Mantle's *Treasury of the theatre* (in forty-three personal libraries).

Based, as the library's program must be, on the objectives of the college it serves, the library at Stephens is dedicated to supporting and supplementing "a curriculum specifically designed to prepare girls to meet the problems of life." These problems were defined by W. W. Charters in terms of seven areas of activity which he found were engaged in by all women, namely: communications, appreciation of the beautiful, social adjustment, physical health, mental health, consumers' problems, and philosophy of living.

Even though few colleges limit themselves to giving instruction in these amenities of living, a really vitalized library program should contain elements of library service that could be adopted by colleges with other objectives. The Stephens library program undoubtedly contains such elements, but their evaluation is difficult in the dim light of inadequate statistical evidence and in the soft glow of romance that inevitably pervades even the library of a successful finishing school.

LEROY CHARLES MERRITT

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

Rural America reads: a study of rural library service. By MARION HUMBLE. ("Studies in the social significance of adult education in the United States.") New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938. Pp. ix+101. \$1.00.

Librarians concerned with rural America may well be glad that the American Association for Adult Education's notable series, "Studies in the social significance of adult education," embraces this volume on the rural library as an agency of adult education. True, as the author points out, fully three-fourths of the fifty-two million people living on farms and in rural villages are without public libraries; and in many instances even where independent libraries have been established their service is entirely inadequate. Yet this rapid survey of typical portions of the rural United States, from New England to California, describes a variety of library agencies which serve the country people: regional, state, county, school district, and local libraries; branches and stations in homes, stores, halls, and post offices. The study makes no claim of completeness or of profundity; it is a readable and amiable, rather than critical, record of library excursions into rural adult education. Its chief value lies in the fact that here, within brief compass, may be found descriptions of most of the educational devices, both good and bad, which are being practiced today in rural libraries.

Many librarians find themselves "too busy" to experiment with new methods of arousing interest in reading, writes Miss Humble. But library discussion groups have been effective in a number of California counties, in Waupun, Wisconsin, and in Hunterdon County, New Jersey.

These discussion groups are real experiments in stimulating the people of our democracy to think. It is to be regretted that more rural librarians are not conducting such experiments. Though group discussion seems to offer them an effective method of awakening interest in many subjects, I found this method being used in only a few rural communities, possibly because many librarians are too timid or reluctant to assume the necessary leadership.

The author noted that cultivation of aesthetic interests is a road to reading and that the radio has influenced reading habits and the choice of books even in the remotest parts of the nation. There are nearly two hundred radio stations which broadcast book news or book reviews, and listeners protest immediately when these features are temporarily withdrawn. Here, as elsewhere, however, librarians have hesitated to make full use of radio as a stimulating device, knowing that free library services cannot supply the book demands which inevitably would result.

The rural library as an educational force finds active support from numerous national, regional, and state, as well as local, organizations. Among the half-dozen which the author cites almost at random are women's clubs, parent-teacher associations, book-review clubs, and the Committee on Home Economics in Education through Libraries of the American Home Economics Association. This committee, whose program was begun in nine states in

1937, has the permanent objective of making reading and the use of libraries "an integral part of education along with instruction in cooking, sewing, and other homemaking activities." The combining of adult education and library extension divisions in New York State and the place of libraries in the educational program of the Tennessee Valley Authority are cited as illustrations of the increasing importance of the educational emphasis in rural libraries.

Behind the books is the librarian who selects them and directs their use. If the rural library is to be significant in adult education the librarian must have an awareness of changing conditions which reading alone will not give. Library conferences, institutes, group discussions, and staff meetings are devices which have been utilized as means of in-service training.

The reader closes the book with a conviction that, for reasons inherent in rural social and economic organization, country people are particularly book minded and responsive to educational emphasis in library service, and that libraries are falling far short of their opportunities in rural adult education. Extension of library facilities, of course, is part of the solution. May not another part be the redefinition of library functions in the light of actual present-day rural life and its needs?

MARY U. ROTHROCK

Tennessee Valley Authority
Knoxville

Activity book for school libraries. By LUCILE F. FARGO. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. xi+208. \$2.50.

This publication supplements the texts and manuals designed for the professional education of the school librarian. It is a compilation of ideas about purposeful undertakings of boys and girls which center in the school library. The projects suggested are pupil enterprises rather than librarian enterprises. The author claims no originality for the ideas, as they were culled from "dozens of books and piles of periodicals, pamphlets, reports, and clippings."

No attempt has been made to segregate the activities according to the ages or school levels for which they are suited because some activities appeal to a wide range of age levels and other activities are very obviously limited to a specific age or grade.

The first two chapters provide the necessary educational orientation and consider the activity program from the educational and from the library point of view. The detailed definition of an activity and of an activity program given in the first chapter will seem unnecessary to those readers who are working in or who are acquainted with an activity school. But for those not familiar with such an instructional program, the explanation is a pertinent introduction to the chapters which follow. Clearly and concisely, Miss Fargo

defines such essential characteristics of an activity school as self-activity on the part of the pupils, enlightened guidance from the teachers, and emphasis on group or social effort. She also discusses the concepts of experiential learning and integration.

In the second chapter a summary of educational theory relating to the library activity is given. Library activities as carried on in the school having an activity program are differentiated from library activities in schools having other types of instructional programs. Educational criteria are suggested by which activities sponsored by the library may be judged and evaluated. These criteria are kept in mind in succeeding chapters. Miss Fargo points out the two principal ways in which school libraries carry on activities: "(a) by participating in activities initiated elsewhere in the school; and (b) by initiating special activities which the library itself is particularly well fitted to sponsor." These are discussed at length and illustrated with specific examples.

The remaining seven chapters are devoted to "telling in the fewest possible words how to initiate, carry on and complete specific activities which center in or hinge upon the library." Chapter headings are indicative of the wide variety suggested: "Auditorium and assembly," "Curriculum subject activities," "Library clubs and committees," "The stimulation of reading," "The library and the individual," "Contests, games, and drill," and "Publicity." Although in the true activity school children write their own plays, Miss Fargo has listed a number of plays about books, plays from books, and amateur pantomimes for those schools which do not have an activity program.

Specific activities can be located readily by means of the catchword headings and the analytical index. A bibliography is provided at the end of each chapter for further study. The illustrations throughout the book are attractive line drawings with stick figures drawn by Helen F. Gleason. The book is written in such a simple, popular, and nontechnical style that it could be read by the boys and girls in getting ideas for their library projects.

School librarians, public librarians, and teachers will find much of practical value in this volume. Although planned for those schools teaching by means of an activity program, it will be helpful in all schools regardless of size or of type of curriculum. Activities are suggested for all grade levels from elementary through high school and could be utilized in rural as well as in city schools.

Miss Fargo's previous publications in this field include: *The library in the school*, *The program for elementary school library service*, and *Preparation for school library work*.

MILDRED HAWKSWORTH LOWELL

*Eastern Oregon College of Education
La Grande, Oregon*

Books you'll enjoy: an annotated guide for readers of from twelve to eighteen years. By MURIEL STEEL; Foreword by J. M. Mitchell; Introduction by W. C. BERWICK SAYERS. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. 103. 5s. net.

This gaily bound little book is the third in a group of bibliographies which resulted from a movement sponsored by the United Kingdom Trust; its stated purpose is that of encouraging and guiding the postschool reading of young people. The Foreword by Lieutenant Colonel Mitchell and the Introduction by Mr. Sayers will at once capture the attention and consideration of American librarians, who will be deeply interested in the type of books selected and how they have been presented.

The titles have been arranged in two sections: "fiction" and "general" books, with a short supplementary list of reference books.

In the fiction section there are adventure and detective stories, with thrills and hair-breadth escapes; quiet stories of home life; historical romances in which the past becomes fascinatingly alive; holiday stories and sports tales; school stories; animal stories, tales of the sea and air; yarns about Red Indians and pirates; biographical novels; fantastic and macabre tales; short stories; humorous stories; and tales taking one to England, Scotland, America, China, Canada, France, Germany, Bulgaria, Switzerland, North and South Africa, India, Greenland, and other countries.

This sounds like a large order for approximately one-half of a small book, and our first concern is for the kind of American stories which have been included. It is disappointing to discover that many of our best novels for young people have been omitted; instead, we find *Pollyanna*, three books by L. M. Montgomery, three by Heyliger and many others of equal mediocrity. Why, for example, would anyone prefer Chesley Kahmann's *Carmen, silent partner* to such books as Mabel Robinson's *Bright island*, Elizabeth Gray's *Meggy MacIntosh*, or Elsie Singmaster's *You make your own luck*? In her Preface the compiler writes, "If you enjoy the one or two books by a particular author included in the selection, you will probably find that there are many more available by the same writer." In view of this statement, one cannot help feeling that one title by Heyliger and one by Montgomery and the others would have been sufficient, thus allowing space for more of our better books. Let us hope that our young British cousins will not think that these books are representative of the best in American fiction for young people.

What about the British novels? No matter how much we may disagree with the selection of American titles it is difficult for us to question the British titles. Certainly no one would have the temerity to do so, since Mr. Berwick Sayers has stated that Miss Steel has done her work well and that "the selection is sound."

At first, we might be inclined to question the inclusion of omnibus volumes, but Miss Steel has forestalled this criticism in her Preface by announcing that they have been included for reasons of economy. "These are condemned in many quarters," she admits, "but for librarians with little money to spend and voracious appetites to satisfy they are a boon."

Again, she forestalls criticism concerning the age levels of titles chosen by writing that "a selection of this kind is easy to criticise. Some will deplore its juvenility, others its too advanced standard, for there can be no agreement on the subject of the books suitable for readers changing over from juvenile to adult reading. Juvenile books must be included, 'bridge-books,' and adult books."

In the general section there are relatively few American titles and here they are choices with which we have no quarrel; certainly not with such books as Anne Lindbergh's *Listen! the wind*, Cornelia Meigs's *Story of Louisa Alcott*, and Van Loon's *Story of mankind*. "The idea of the general section of this list," states the compiler, "is to introduce the adventurous reader through books to some of the many interests there are in life." And this she seems to have done well.

But what, if any, is the actual value of this bibliography to American librarians? In England it is to be given directly into the hands of young people for use in making their own selection of books. The book is practically useless for such a purpose in this country. Our *By way of introduction*, *Leisure reading*, *Home reading*, and similar book lists are far more suitable. And yet the book may have certain values for us. The young people's librarian will find many challenging ideas in the compiler's Preface as well as in the splendid Introduction by Berwick Sayers. Moreover, a compiler of book lists will be fascinated by the breezy, entertaining annotations. It would not be wise to imitate Miss Steel's style too closely and to describe any book as "a bracing book," "a racy little book," and so on, but we are more than likely to find many terms applicable to our lists which may infuse new life into our annotations. The librarian who deals with young people from England will welcome the book and use it for the purpose designed.

Finally, we may say that although *Books you'll enjoy* is of little value in guiding the reading of our young people, it is a book which many American librarians will enjoy tremendously—even though for reasons other than those intended by the compiler.

MARY REBECCA LINGENFELTER

Lock Haven State Teachers College
Lock Haven, Pennsylvania

Investigating library problems. By DOUGLAS WAPLES. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xv+116. \$1.00.

In this small book Mr. Waples has produced at once an entrance into research attitudes and techniques tested in other disciplines; a whetstone on which the "lay" library mind can sharpen itself for more acute explorations into library literature; and, finally, an apologia, at a practical level, of the objectives of the Graduate Library School.

As a manual in research techniques especially useful in library investigations, the work is as broad in scope as it is abbreviated in treatment. Commencing with a short but incisive chapter on stating research problems, the author considers the validity and reliability of evidence, personal and documentary sources of evidence, historical criticism as a research technique, and the methods of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Each chapter is followed by references, examples, exercises, and a series of questions aimed at applying the operation just considered to the reader's own research problem. This final section is intended as a substitute, in the case of the isolated user of the pamphlet, for class discussion of individual problems.

Relying on the general availability of books and library workers' facility in referring to a variety of sources, Mr. Waples has chosen to develop his manual more as a concordance to outstanding treatises on research methods in education and the social sciences, rather than to prepare a full-fledged, thoroughgoing manual specifically for the library-science field. While this approach levies a considerable tax on the reader's energy, good results from its use are likely to be secured, and the student is well protected against the parochial limitations produced by reliance on a single manual. Led by the references to literature in various fields, the student should benefit from varying points of view and different treatments of similar methods. Greatest reliance is placed by the author on Good, Barr, and Scates's *Methodology of educational research* and Waples and Tyler's *Research methods and teachers' problems*.

Though aimed primarily at the research worker in the library field, this manual should be useful to the practicing library worker who entertains a curiosity about the value of contemporary library literature. Mr. Waples' treatment of research methods will enable such a user to achieve a critical viewpoint. While material for developing such a viewpoint has long been available in many disciplines, few library workers have undertaken to adapt this literature to their own fields. The author has bridged this gap without too strongly interposing his own views. A result of the manual's publication should be a sharpening of critical attention to professional writing.

This manual may be regarded as a third attempt on the part of the Graduate Library School faculty to interpret its philosophy to librarians. Butler in his *Introduction to library science* offered an explanation at a very general level. Carnovsky, in his rebuttal to Munn's criticism of library schools, brought the general statement down to a more specific level. Now Waples sets forth the school's philosophy in a concrete statement of research method. His examples and discussion, which rely frequently on publications of faculty members or graduates of the school, elaborate his presentation to a high degree. There should no longer be any question in the mind of the attentive reader as to the position of the school in relation to libraries and to research.

While generally put with great clarity, the manual's style occasionally suffers from the obscurity of compression and the author is led into such com-

plexities as, "He thus brings to view the areas wherein the student's selection of problems for historical examination may be guided by the present social implications of institutional elements whose origins and developments invite historical criticism." It is to be hoped that such a useful tool as this manual will be reprinted many times and that its next reprinting may see revised the numeration of the preliminary pages which do not track with index references.

DONALD CONEY

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Library local collections. By W. C. BERWICK SAYERS. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 7.) London: Allen & Unwin, 1938. Pp. 128. 5s. net.

Such a handbook as this, if written primarily for American librarians, would need to give much greater consideration to municipal reference collections. In England, as Mr. Sayers puts it, "funds have not been forthcoming yet for any extensive British experiment in the matter, partly, I suppose, owing to our failure to convince local authorities of the value of a library which contains material of all kinds bearing upon, and published by, local government bodies."

The present handbook is obviously addressed—in considerable part, at least—to the small, English public library, while bearing in mind the commendable examples of such large local collections as that in the Edinburgh Room in the Edinburgh Central Public Library, and the local collections at Manchester, Sheffield, Birmingham, and Gloucester.

In suggesting what to collect under "material about the area," Mr. Sayers specifically lists legal, parochial, municipal, and business manuscripts and manuscripts of local authors. Under "printed material" he names histories; literary, church, government, municipal, and business records; music and theatrical records; and sports records. It is also urged that "material produced in the area and not about it" be added.

One wishes that Mr. Sayers had enlarged upon the problem of collecting theatrical material; for the advent of sound pictures has meant the death of many old theaters throughout England as it has meant the end for thousands in America over a period of years in which far too little attempt has been made by American public libraries to secure programs, playbills, posters, and similar memorabilia now quite hard to unearth. How many English or American public libraries can boast, as can the Milwaukee Public Library, of scrap-books containing programs of the offerings at the leading local theater for a period of more than thirty years?

There are ten chapters in Mr. Sayers' little handbook, and those which deal with cost and methods of collection, with arrangement and cataloging, with photographic and regional survey records, with housing and filing, and

with maps contain many helpful suggestions which are adaptable within the range of our general practice.

The author sounds a current note of British pessimism when he urges better protection from aircraft attack as a reason for using concrete in modern library construction.

Mr. Sayers' list of "useful books and articles" in the Appendix contains few American entries, and some of these have been superseded by more current and more satisfactory treatments of the subjects involved.

JACKSON E. TOWNE

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Die staatlichen Volksbüchereistellen im Aufbau des deutschen Volksbüchereiwesens, Band I: *Veröffentlichungen der Berliner Bibliotheksschule*. By FRANZ SCHRIEWER. ("Abteilung für den Dienst an Volksbüchereien.") Leipzig: Einkaufshaus für Büchereien, 1938. Pp. 155. Rm. 4.4.

Das ländliche Volksbüchereiwesen: Einführung in Grundfragen und Praxis der Dorf- und Kleinstadtbüchereien. By FRANZ SCHRIEWER. Jena: Eugen Diederichs, 1938. Pp. 194. Rm. 5.

Das Schülerbüchereiwesen der Volksschulen in Leistungszahlen: eine buchpolitische Untersuchung über seine Lage und Möglichkeit auf Grund von Ermittlungen im Regierungs-Bezirk Frankfurt (Oder) für das Jahr 1936-37. By FRANZ SCHRIEWER. Leipzig: Einkaufshaus für Büchereien, 1938. Pp. 44. Rm. 0.60.

Deutsche Büchereifragen in Zahl und Bild: Untersuchungen und Darstellungen aus dem Arbeitsbereich der Bücherei Frankfurt (Oder). Ausgestellt auf der "Leistungsschau der deutschen Volksbüchereien 1933-1938" in Leipzig. By FRANZ SCHRIEWER. Leipzig: Einkaufshaus für Büchereien, 1938. Pp. [16]. Rm. 3.

It is a common feature of all totalitarian states to indoctrinate. It was therefore to be expected that the popular libraries, which are such an excellent means of dissemination of *Weltanschauung*, should become an important part of the cultural and propaganda structure of the Third Reich. Various decrees have been concerned with aspects of popular libraries or with their condition in certain parts of the Reich. On October 26, 1937, the Reichsminister for Education promulgated more comprehensive regulations which were not limited to any one state but covered the whole of the Reich. The regulations provided for one Reich agency and a larger number of state agencies for popular libraries. The director of the Reich library agency and the heads of state library agencies are appointed by the same person, the Reichsminister for Education. The director of the Reich agency, among other things, advises the Reichsminister for Education on all questions concerning popular libraries

and supervises state library agencies in professional matters. The state agencies for popular libraries, in their turn, are in their respective districts concerned with the supervision, establishment, and expansion of all popular libraries except those in cities of over one hundred thousand inhabitants. These are directly supervised by the Reich library agency.

Franz Schriewer's *Die staatlichen Volksbüchereistellen im Aufbau des deutschen Volksbüchereiwesens* is limited to a description and evaluation of the state agencies for popular libraries. As the regulations of October 26, 1937, establish the legal and governmental basis, Schriewer does not consider it necessary to discuss them in detail. His main purpose is to acquaint his colleagues, especially the younger ones, with the nongovernmental aspects. His sketch of the historical development of the state library agencies shows the erratic nature of state interest in popular libraries before 1933. It is true that of the forty-two agencies whose history is given, eighteen were created after 1933. But of the remaining twenty-four, fifteen were established during the period of the Weimar Republic (1918-32). It goes without saying that these fifteen were not permeated by the aims of the Third Reich but merely by the desire to "democratize education." The difference between the former and present agencies is well brought out. Formerly there was the possibility of advising and accepting advice. Today, however, it is the agency's prerogative to advise and the community's obligation to follow. Schriewer pleads again and again with his colleagues not to misinterpret and misuse this power. The state library agency, he says, should win over people not by giving administrative orders but by advice and assistance. If the state library agency is to be in a position to help it must put the finishing touches on all books—examine them, etc.; it must be more than a mere transit station. Since the head of a state library agency has such large responsibilities as establishing and reorganizing libraries, advising educational and administrative authorities, and presiding at regional library meetings, we can agree that he should possess unusual energy, experience, and knowledge. This is all the more true if, as Schriewer advocates, the direction of a state library agency is given to a man who retains his position as librarian of the largest and most efficient public library of the region.

In comparing the state agencies with the Danish central libraries, which perform a similar function, it becomes apparent that the scope is quite different. A Danish central library cares for about eighty thousand persons, while a German state library agency provides for more than seven times as many people. It seems logical that the number of agencies must be considerably increased if their work is to be as thorough as that of the Danish central libraries. To Americans, who accept as a matter of course the A.L.A. standard of one dollar per capita, it seems strange that Schriewer should have to emphasize that twenty pfennig (about eight cents) a person annually is really necessary for the maintenance of a rural library. Schriewer rightly insists that

the library's financial outlay should always form part of the regular budget of the community; in other words, no library should be founded unless its financial security is assured.

Especially did the rural districts, which hitherto had had an insufficient public library service, benefit from the increased state interest in popular libraries. Inexperienced librarians, teachers, and others who might be in charge of these libraries on a part-time basis, and the administrative officers who had to deal with library matters, needed a guide. Franz Schriewer offered a plain introduction to theory and practice of the rural library in his *Das ländliche Volksbüchereiwesen*. The field of the rural library includes not only the village but also the small town. Of the three types of libraries which may serve the rural district, Schriewer thinks two should be encouraged, namely, the permanently established local library (Standbücherei) and the school library. A third form, the traveling library, should be replaced by the local library whenever possible. This should contain all essential material, unusual works being supplied by a central library. The school library and the local library should co-operate, but each should preserve its characteristic features. Schriewer devotes special chapters to the practical problems which confront the village and small-town librarian. They are in principle the same, with the exception that a rather uniform village population requires a smaller number of books and fewer titles than the somewhat more complex population of the small town. In speaking of book selection and book holdings it seems rather superfluous for him to say "the whole selection does not have anything accidental, but springs from the present German philosophy." It is obvious that "everywhere National Socialist principles may be recognized." If one glances over the topics on the approved list for all small-town libraries in the Reich one finds such headings as: "Eternal Germany," "Struggle and victory of the National Socialist Movement," "The New State," "Racial history," "Nazi philosophy," "The false doctrines of Marxism and Bolshevism." A good Nazi may wonder whether the non-German, and hence inferior, racial strains which appear in some border regions should not be supplied with a simpler intellectual fare. Schriewer, however, rejects this point of view because his investigations indicate that intellectual levels which essentially condition reading tastes are not affected by racial differences. Yet it is a consolation for the good Nazi when Schriewer adds the statement that reading is merely a receptive and not a creative process. Schriewer believes, with all modern librarians, that readers should be attracted to the libraries by all possible methods. He complains especially about one obstacle—the fee which is usually charged by the public libraries in Germany. He advocates that the Reich should follow the practice of the Scandinavian and Anglo-Saxon countries. Let us hope that Schriewer succeeds in his attempt to reassure those of his German readers who might find the free public library anathema because it is cherished by democracies. Some of them may want proof of his bare statement that the free

public library does not represent "democratic liberalism." It is this reviewer's belief that another product of the New World, the decimal classification system (in an adapted form) would be useful. It would be an improvement upon the present elementary and crude practice that results in different classification symbols for each library.

A third investigation by Schriewer, *Das Schülerbüchereiwesen der Volksschulen in Leistungszahlen*, deals with the actual and possible aims of school libraries, their relation to popular libraries, and their place in the National Socialist scheme of education. Statistics of the district Frankfurt-on-Oder furnish the data for this pioneer study which is addressed to teachers, librarians, and the administrative authorities concerned. Typical problems considered are: What percentage of pupils in the various primary school systems read library books? What is the average number of books withdrawn by these readers? How do rural districts compare with urban areas? Does sex difference affect reading? Should there be a young people's department in a popular library in addition to the school library? What are the financial needs of a school library? The answers to some of these questions are: The school library reaches about an equal number of boys and girls. Children in rural and in urban areas do the same amount of reading. Girls prefer the school library to the young people's department of the popular library. Young people's departments of popular libraries should never replace but merely supplement school libraries.

The main library of the Frankfurt-on-Oder district furnished the data for Schriewer's statistical and graphic presentation which was exhibited in Leipzig. The exhibit was devoted to the development and achievements of the German popular library during the period 1933-38. These charts were later published under the title *Deutsche Büchereifragen in Zahl und Bild*. If anything can arouse the interest of the general public and make it library-conscious it is a study such as this, concise and factual but nevertheless attractive. The first group of charts shows the differences between various reader groups—age, sex, social status, etc. The second set illustrates the ratio between the several subject fields which comprise the book holdings of the library; it also shows the proper functions of the reading and reference rooms. The last group represents the new methods which have been followed in building up the rural libraries. Some of the author's favorite ideas which were already expounded in his *Das ländliche Volksbüchereiwesen* are pictured here.

These four studies differ in style and appeal, yet all reveal certain characteristics of the author. He writes lucidly, he draws from a wide and varied experience, and he bases his conclusions on firm statistical groundwork, although rarely questioning those theories which spring from the Nazi philosophy.

Fritz Veit

Graduate Library School
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Libraries and readers in the state of New York: the state's administration of public and school libraries with reference to the educational values of library services. By DOUGLAS WAPLES and LEON CARNOVSKY. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiii+160. \$2.00.

Admirable in format and well indexed, this volume forms an integral and an invaluable part of the report of the findings of the New York State Board of Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York.

The summary chapter, which is placed first, states the basic assumptions of the study: (1) The state seeks to establish whatever conditions in each community supply the strongest incentive toward reading the "better" publications to the consequent neglect of the "worse." (2) The state must teach the youth how to read and to do this must supply more of the publications that are merely exciting than it would supply otherwise. (3) Other things being equal, the most accessible publications are those most widely read. (4) To increase the reading of the better publications the reader must be led to prefer them by sympathetic and, usually, by individual guidance.

To determine, in part, how successfully the state is fulfilling its aims the authors selected two communities, designating them as "Extown" and "Wytown," where they obtained reading records from the three groups of the population which presumably do the most reading—high-school students, public-school teachers, and parents of high-school students. Extown and Wytown were chosen from a select list of sixty because "together they represent communities in which the supply of good reading matter is well above the average and separately they represent widely different cultural and economic levels."

What the various readers in the three groups and the two communities actually read for a period of two weeks and where they obtained the reading matter is carefully tabulated, compared, and contrasted. Reference is made to patterns disclosed by previous studies. The presentation of material in the text and in the appendix is detailed and well organized. The statistically minded reader will enjoy the admirable tables and charts; the lay reader will find not only complete descriptions, but, at the end of each chapter, clear, succinct generalizations drawn from the evidence therein presented.

The classifications used to group magazines by type and content under thirty-two headings are interesting. For nonfiction thirteen classes—several drawn directly from the decimal classification—are used. For fiction a classification developed in an earlier study by J. H. Foster is employed. Although one may not entirely agree with some of the classifications of inferior, medium, and superior fiction, as shown in Appendix D, one agrees that the subject classes afford a "socially meaningful description" not found in the more general term "fiction." The sources from which readers obtained their materials are grouped under eight headings.

After presenting the evidence as to what is happening in the two carefully chosen communities where reading materials are plentiful, the conclusion is that

the reading patterns of students, teachers, and parents . . . go far to justify confidence in the high schools. For example, the percentage of parents' fiction reading which was classed as "superior" in the two communities combined is less than that of the two groups of Seniors combined. The magazines read by teachers are somewhat more substantial than those read by parents, and senior students tend to read the magazines read by teachers more than they read those preferred by their parents.

However, the need in other less favored communities for more intelligent and economical book selection through school and library co-operation is stressed; also the need for increased reading guidance by each. The cautious criticism is voiced that "the public library, where it exists, sometimes caters to a level of community taste in books which increases circulation among students and adults at the expense of several more important educational values."

In the subsequent chapters the authors concern themselves with library organization, both good and bad, as it exists in the state at the present time. The investigation included checking the holdings of eleven high-school libraries and also of certain public libraries. The greater part of the material presented in this section of the book, however, is drawn from the reports on file in the Library Extension Division of the State Education Department.

Co-operative schemes now in existence between public and school libraries receive major emphasis, because

we believe that it is useless to inveigh against inadequate facilities and to depend solely or primarily upon better financial support to bring about a substantial improvement. Obviously, more money will help, but it seems likely that the greatest improvement must come about through consolidation of inadequate school units and co-operation with other library agencies.

Regional depositories, somewhat like those in existence in California, upon which neighboring school and public libraries might draw, and "operating under the aegis of the Library Extension Division as the regulating and co-ordinating agent" are envisaged by the authors as a useful and possible adjunct to the present organization. Indeed, they recommend that their establishment be made mandatory.

Constructive criticism is offered in the matter of the distribution of state aid, where it would seem that changes might make for greater usefulness of such funds as are available. The work of the Library Extension Division, as far as it goes, is highly commended. "We find its personnel competent, its policies sound, and its resources—in personnel, books, and money—inadequate."

A final chapter summarizes briefly the authors' recommendations under six headings: the publication as a single unit of all the findings of the Inquiry relating to libraries, the increasing of the size of the school districts to a point at which adequate support of school libraries is possible, the establishment of

regional depositories, the strengthening of the Educational Extension Division, the more equitable distribution of grants to public libraries from the United States Deposit Fund, and the redistricting of public library areas.

The recommendation that all of the findings relating to libraries be brought together as a unit will doubtless commend itself to librarians. Yet the material as at present incorporated in the various volumes will certainly make for clearer library-mindedness on the part of many teachers and school officials who probably would not read a volume devoted exclusively to the library. And the library profession has quite enough significant material presented in the volume under discussion to furnish a basis for serious study and a stimulus to further investigation. Indeed, the book is already in use as a basic text in at least one reading-guidance course for school librarians. In the opinion of the reviewer it would be equally useful for school and public library administration. Although the investigation concerned itself with New York State, the usefulness of the book outside the state is obvious.

MARY ELIZABETH COBB

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Survey of libraries in Canada, 1936-38 (being Part III of the "Biennial survey of education in Canada, 1936-38"). Ottawa, Canada: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1939. Pp. 74. \$0.35.

This survey of libraries in Canada presents data primarily for the calendar year 1937, with data for the years 1931, 1933, and 1935 included for purposes of comparison.

The publication deals, respectively, with (1) public libraries, (2) university, college, and professional school libraries, (3) business, technical society, and government libraries, (4) school libraries, (5) hospital libraries, and (6) librarians—their training centers and associations. Hospital libraries are listed for the first time, as is also information concerning the number of days and hours that public libraries are open weekly, the expenditures of public libraries, and the number of seats for readers in individual university and college libraries.

Statistics of public libraries show that the public libraries of the Dominion possessed 5,070,132 volumes, registered 1,062,187 borrowers, and loaned a total of 19,560,375 volumes during the year. They served approximately 40 per cent of the total population at a total cost of \$2,041,486, of which \$980,790 was for salaries, \$502,509 for books, and \$558,187 for all other purposes, including balances at the end of the year.

The development of regional libraries and governmental support has been continuous during the last six years, and the apparent increase in the number of trained librarians is notable.

The publication is important as a record of the growth of libraries of all types in Canada and is valuable as a source for comparative data concerning libraries in that country and in the United States.

LOUIS R. WILSON

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Guide to technical literature: introductory chapters and engineering. By A. D. ROBERTS. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. viii+279. 15s. net.

Inasmuch as there is no adequate guide to technical literature, this reviewer's anticipation was high when he observed the title of this publication. Quoting from the Preface:

It is hoped that this book will prove of assistance both to technicians and to librarians. The tools which exist to guide the seeker for technical information . . . are all too few, particularly in engineering—the field with which this work is mainly concerned. . . .

The first chapters deal with the literature of technology as a whole. . . . The later chapters really amount to an annotated bibliography of engineering. . . . A number of subjects related to those dealt with here have been excluded. They include the economics of engineering, agricultural engineering, model engineering, vibration problems, and such special applications as medical electricity. Similarly biographies of individual engineers have been excluded.

The first disappointment is when we learn that the author intends dealing only with engineering, and further that even this is limited by excluding many subheads under engineering. Though the Preface does not indicate it, the field of chemistry is omitted; however, in chapter ii, entitled "Periodicals and other serials," he does list one chemical bibliography and five chemical handbooks merely because they have in them lists of chemical periodicals. Why this inconsistency?

With such a division of material as the author has indicated, one would expect a general introduction in each of the earlier chapters with the actual listing of the reference tools in the later chapters. However, he does not seem to adhere to this principle inasmuch as he lists some tools in the introductory chapters, giving full data therein, and in later chapters refers the reader to the earlier chapters for the desired information. One other inconvenience might be mentioned here. Occasionally general statements are made about certain types of material without giving any specific example but referring the reader for such to some other reference work. For instance, under "Dissertations and theses" he makes the statement that "Other useful publications of this type are listed in Mudge's *Guide to reference books*." Why, if such publications are useful, should they not be incorporated in his own book to save the precious time of a research engineer?

There are instances of inconsistent entries, as, for example, a reference to the Commission International des Grandes Barrages on one page while on a

later page it is called the International Commission on Large Dams and in the Index it is entered only under the English title.

On the whole, the later chapters cannot be termed "an annotated bibliography of engineering" because of the fact that there are no annotations of the individual works. Under many of the subdivisions—such as "Armature winding," "Marine Diesels," "Die-casting," etc.—what we find is only a list of recent titles on that particular subject.

Apropos of annotations and descriptions, we may say that the bibliographic data are not in all cases complete, especially in continuations. For instance, the general statement is made that "The British Association for Refrigeration publishes its proceedings. . . ." It can be easily conceived that an engineer might like to know where, how frequently, and how long the proceedings have been published. The librarian of a small library usually will not have sources available to furnish him with such information.

Again, "The English edition of the abstracting service on welding which is compiled at the Berlin Technische Hochschule is issued in England by Welding Index Ltd. The index cards are sent to subscribers." A footnote says, "The German edition is described . . . in . . .," and gives the source. What about the English edition? What is it called? What does it cover? When did it begin?

A factor contributing to the difficulty in using the book is that many titles are lost in paragraphs or pages of solid type. The eye could find such references more easily were they set in indented arrangement similar to that used in part of the book.

To American engineers and librarians this publication will be somewhat limited in its usefulness because of its English emphasis and its important omissions. The *International critical tables of numerical data, physics, chemistry, and technology*, the *Union list of serials in libraries of the United States and Canada*, and *Metallurgical abstracts* would certainly seem worthy of entry in a guide to technical literature.

Despite the foregoing, the difficulties under which Mr. Roberts labored to produce this book are appreciated, though we wish the title were not so misleading and the Preface were more definitive.

KANARDY L. TAYLOR

The John Crerar Library
Chicago

A pamphlet about pamphlets. By LESTER CONDIT. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. x+104 (planographed). \$0.75.

According to most contemporary definitions, this work on pamphlets cannot really be called a pamphlet. It exceeds by fourteen pages the liberal allowance of the American Library Association for that type of publication,

and by thirty-four pages the eighty allowed by *Webster's new international dictionary*. Most libraries would bind it in board covers and thus make it a book, if it is not one now. The *Americana's* charge that a pamphlet is an ephemeral publication does not apply to the work in hand, nor can we agree with the *Britannica* that it is "more remarkable for its vigor than for its balance." After spending several pages to review the various definitions of pamphlets and pronouncements on pamphlets, the author concludes that a pamphlet is what we make it. So we cannot blame him for choosing this pat title for his scholarly work on this important literary form.

A good portion of the publication is devoted to developing the historical background of the pamphlet in an effort to bring out its importance in terms hitherto seldom considered. Thus a whole chapter is taken to discuss important pamphlet collections that exist or have existed all over the civilized world. A list of bibliographies and catalogs of pamphlet collections in Continental Europe is given in Table 2, and one's curiosity is aroused by the fact that the first heading is "6. France," with no indication of what countries make up the numbers one to five. The last heading is "9. Germany." Table 3 contains "11. British" and "12. American." What happened to number ten? The two tables seem to be excerpts from a more complete listing of pamphlet collections, the original numbering having been left intact. The mystery is heightened by the awful suspicion that the list may have continued beyond number twelve.

The remainder of the work is concerned with problems of acquisition and administration and it provides a good résumé of variant policies and procedures. The volume is not intended to supersede any existing texts on the filing of pamphlets but serves rather as an introductory discussion to the whole problem of acquisition, preservation, and use.

An excellent bibliography—classified in accordance with the chapter headings—gives ample references to relevant professional literature. Other useful aids to successful pamphlet administration are an "Index to manufacturers and dealers" and an "Index to articles of library equipment used in the treatment of pamphlets."

LEROY CHARLES MERRITT

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Three Americanists. By RANDOLPH G. ADAMS. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. 101. \$1.50.

Whoever chooses the Rosenbach Fellow in Bibliography at the University of Pennsylvania has displayed sagacity in the selections which have been made since the establishment of the Fellowship by Dr. A. S. W. Rosenbach in 1930. The first Fellow was Christopher Morley, whose lectures were published under the title *Ex libris carissimis* (1932). Morley, with his gift for

stimulating interest in books and in the reading of them, was at his best in his lectures. Lawrence C. Wroth, curator of the John Carter Brown Library and an acknowledged authority on Colonial printing, in his *An American bookshelf, 1755*, gave us substantial scholarship to follow the *apéritif* of Morley. Later, A. Edward Newton added his excellent *Bibliography and pseudo-bibliography*. As the 1938 Fellow, Randolph G. Adams, curator of the William L. Clements Library of American History at the University of Michigan, offers a meaty course in his *Three Americanists*—lectures on the bibliographer, Henry Harrisse; on the collector, George Brinley; and on the librarian, Thomas Jefferson—each of whom made a notable contribution to bibliography in his respective field.

To bibliographers and those interested in Americana, Henry Harrisse's name stands for a great deal, for his was the first scientific approach to the complicated problems confronting the student and the collector of the books comprising this field. Dr. Adams, drawing upon the wealth of material that came to the Clements Library in the Vignaud collection and augmenting it with documents in the New York Public Library, the Library of Congress, the Charleston Library Society, and other collections, presents an excellent portrait of Harrisse the man and the scholar. The highlights are here and suggestions for further study are clearly indicated in the footnotes and citations.

Although George Brinley is rarely mentioned with the great nineteenth-century collectors of Americana—such as John Carter Brown, James Lenox, and Elihu Dwight Church—he deserves to be. Brown, Lenox, and Church sought the great rarities of the "Discovery period," but Brinley, as the catalog of his library testifies, sought mainly another type of Americana—the books dealing with the periods of the colonization and expansion of America, i.e., the United States. He did not scorn Americana of the earlier era, but he was more eager to obtain the first books actually printed in America and the earliest accounts of the settlements. He was interested not only in the Atlantic seaboard but also in the westward expansion; and his library contained many of the rarities that are called today "western Americana," as Dr. Adams points out: early St. Louis and Detroit directories, many of the items now known as "overland travels," early laws, and innumerable pioneer diaries and local histories now rare and difficult to obtain in good copies.

Speaking primarily to a group of college students, Dr. Adams has wisely chosen Brinley as an example of the collector type of "Americanist." It would take considerable wealth today to collect books such as Brown, Lenox, Church, Ayer, Huntington, and Clements sought and obtained. But, although it would require many times the amount realized at the sale (\$127,138.12, including the Gutenberg Bible which brought \$8,000) to reproduce the Brinley library today, the young collector of moderate means can hope to emulate Brinley's example, whereas to rival Brown or Clements is

almost beyond the imagination. Librarians and collectors will do well to read and ponder these two sentences from the closing paragraph of this lecture on Brinley: "A library, intelligently and systematically collected, represents not merely the titles gathered, it represents a useful synthesis, the having put together the books that belong together. This value of the library as a whole, in the estimation of some of us, far outweighs the value of the sum of the parts." If a young collector or a librarian with limited means at his disposal will remember this in planning his collection, he will have ever at hand advice which he should heed in determining the purchase of any given item, namely: "Does this book fit into my synthesis? Does it belong with the other books which I have?"

Dr. Adams introduces Thomas Jefferson as a librarian—a man who not only bought and read books but who "had an amazingly retentive memory, a genius for selection, and a perfect passion for the systematic and orderly arrangement of data so as to make it most readily available for actual use." "His policy was to acquire books which would be useful for reading in America." These sentences, transposed, to be sure, from the last paragraph on page 72, explain Dr. Adams' inclusion of Thomas Jefferson in this series of lectures. Almost anyone who recalls his American history remembers, if pressed hard enough, that Jefferson's library formed the nucleus of the Library of Congress, but beyond that few have ventured in the study of Jefferson as a bookman and "Americanist" in Dr. Adams' sense of the term. This lecture is, as Dr. Adams admits, but an introduction to the study of Jefferson as a bookman and his influence upon the development of libraries and library methods. But it is a good and thoughtful introduction; one which we hope Dr. Adams, or someone of his caliber, will follow up with a book on "Thomas Jefferson, the father of American librarianship." Several interesting points are brought out, one of the most notable being Jefferson's idea of using the Baconian classification of knowledge as the basis for a library scheme of the classification of books (see p. 92 ff.). Query: Did Melvil Dewey know this fact?

Not the least valuable points of this book are Dr. Adams' ideas and incidental comments on bibliographies and bibliographers, libraries and librarians, and even such practical subjects as the comparative cost of photostats and microfilms (see pp. 26-27) which are liberally sprinkled throughout the book. Those interested in the history of printing should mark the distinction which he makes between the terms (Gutenberg and Mazarine) used to designate the first printed Bible (see pp. 47-48 and note). Indeed, these lectures are pre-eminently worth reading and study by a librarian or bookman, and they should be listed as a required reading by all library schools.

GILBERT H. DOANE

University of Wisconsin

Major issues in financing education in Pennsylvania. By LESTER K. ADE. ("Bulletin," No. 135.) Harrisburg: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1938. Pp. 99.

The extension of the length of the school year, the enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws, the increased diversification of the school's program, and the striking increase in enrolment at the high-school level have all contributed to the mounting expenditures for education that have characterized the past half-century. In that period it has become increasingly evident that there are marked differences in the extent to which children in the different communities of a commonwealth are able to participate in the benefits of these changes. These disparities have been greatly accentuated by the depression and, as a result, many communities can be found that are lagging in the developments that make for improved educational opportunities. Studies of these situations usually reveal that these conditions are largely due to the inability of the communities, dependent largely on their own financial resources, to raise the necessary funds. In the day of the simple school program the differences in wealth were not so striking as they are at present, with the result that the needs of the children of different communities could be met on fairly comparable bases. To correct present conditions, financial aid from the state has commonly been accepted. But the bases of distribution that have been devised to correct untoward conditions have proved frequently to be inadequate.

Few states are so fortunate as to have the conditions bearing on the financing of their schools set forth as satisfactorily as this bulletin does it for the state of Pennsylvania. It reveals facts with reference to distribution of the state school moneys and magnitude of the educational problems in different communities and gives some measures of Pennsylvania's ability to support a program of education for its children and youth commensurate with the demands of the present day. It is a commendable effort to make clear what Pennsylvania must do with its program of state aid in order to catch up with the changes that have taken place in the needs of education in the past half-century. Similar studies are needed in other states where they have not been made as guides to the laity and the profession in formulating programs of state assistance in the support of schools that adequately meet the problem of equalization of educational opportunity and burden.

GEORGE A. WORKS

University of Chicago

Knowledge for what? The place of social science in American culture. By ROBERT S. LYND. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. x+268. \$2.50.

Dr. Lynd, co-author of the "Middletown" books and professor of sociology at Columbia University, undertakes in this book tasks which would have given

pause to a more humble scholar. He elaborates a theory of culture, records the more significant aspects of American culture in terms of his theory, examines the status of the social sciences collectively and singly (evaluating the scientist's orientation or disorientation to his view of the significant), sets up a philosophy of social action, and, with fervor, calls his fellow social scientists to the colors for action in programs for making America more habitable. He defends his intrepidity on the grounds that the values which pass under the name of democracy and the social sciences themselves are severely threatened unless social scientists direct their skills and energies to "real" problems and, in addition, provide leadership for humane solutions of these problems.

In this ambitious project Professor Lynd is at his best when he is elaborating the concept of culture in terms of habits and impulses of persons, and describing typical American habits of thought and action. His research has given him special preparation for characterizing Americans in these terms. In his evaluations of the social sciences as they are currently being practiced one who admits his view of the socially significant can, with minor reservations, generally agree. Impressive as is his acquaintance with disciplines other than his own, he has in some instances damned too inclusively and overlooked important scholars, the realism of whose orientations rival his own.

Professor Lynd is at his weakest in instrumenting his call to action. Rather than rest his plea on the interest of social scientists in self-preservation and appreciation, he finds it necessary to plea in the name of nearly universal values which he finds in certain elemental cravings of humans—cravings which he assumes should be realized. In addition, for one who has just given deference to the interpretation of culture in terms of personality, he glides over too easily the practical problems of making popular leaders out of academicians.

To librarians the value of this book may be found in its citations to some of the more important literature of American social science and as an item to be offered on reading lists on the social sciences and on social and economic planning within a democracy. There is an adequate index.

KARL A. BOSWORTH

University of Chicago

Wordsworth and Coleridge: studies in honor of George McLean Harper. Edited by EARL LESLIE GRIGGS. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. viii + 254. \$4.00.

This valuable collection of studies pays a fitting tribute to the distinguished scholar in whose honor it was assembled. Essays by twelve British and American scholars and the text of some jottings made by Coleridge on a tour of the Lake District in 1799 and of a journal kept during a tour of the same district in 1802—both contributed by the Rev. Gerard H. B. Coleridge—make up the body of the book.

These extracts from Coleridge's own writings will be especially welcome, since they are here printed for the first time and add much to our knowledge of Coleridge's prowess as a mountaineer. Of special value also, because it contains firsthand information, is Miss Edith J. Morley's contribution of extracts from the journal kept by George Bellas Greenough during a walking tour over the Harz Mountains in May, 1799, when Coleridge was a member of the group.

There are two papers of a lexicographical sort. Professor Havens' "Solitude, silence and loneliness in the poetry of Wordsworth," shows how deeply the poet was moved by these aspects of nature; while Professor Thorpe's "Coleridge on the sublime" shows how carefully Coleridge, with characteristic intellectual integrity, attempted an exposition of the term "sublime." He finds it to be "inherently subjective," an impression of unfathomable greatness of power. The best examples of sublimity in literature, he believes, are in the Bible and in *Paradise lost*.

Professor de Selincourt in "Wordsworth and his daughter's marriage" corrects the text of a letter written by Wordsworth to Dora in 1828, thus removing from the poet the reproach of opposing Dora's marriage to Mr. Quillinan for thirteen years. As corrected, the letter, which was first incorrectly printed in the *Cornhill magazine* in March, 1893, bears no relation to Dora's engagement.

Professor Monk, in "Anna Seward and the romantic poets: a study in taste," quotes from Miss Seward's letters to show how the taste of the "pre-romantic" age—at least the preromantic taste of Miss Seward—failed utterly to comprehend the new poetry ushered in by the lyrical ballads. Here are Miss Seward's remarks on the *Ancient mariner* written in 1798:

Supernatural horrors are the taste of the times. Have you seen the *Ancient Mariner*? It is the greatest *quizz* of a composition I ever met with—but it has very fine strokes of genius. The style of absolute simplicity suits the unmeaning wildness of its plan, and of its terrific features.

Mention should also be made of Professor Legouis's "Some remarks on the composition of the lyrical ballads of 1798," of Professor Campbell's "Wordsworth's conception of the esthetic experience," and of Professor Stallknecht's "The tragic flaw in Wordsworth's philosophy."

The volume closes with a charming appreciation of Professor Harper by his colleague, Professor J. Duncan Spaeth, and a "Bibliography of the works of George McLean Harper" by Evelyn Griggs.

COOLIDGE O. CHAPMAN

College of Puget Sound
Tacoma, Wash.

Index to supplements to the "Geographical journal": "Recent geographical literature" supplements, Volumes I-IV, Numbers 1-41: 1918-1932. Compiled by order of the COUNCIL; edited by the LIBRARIAN. London: Royal Geographical Society, 1936. Pp. 469.

Before 1918, *Recent geographical literature* appeared as a part of the *Geographical journal*, was bound with the *Journal*, and was indexed in the *General index* to the *Geographical journal*, and its succeeding issues. The decision to issue *Recent geographical literature* separately, in a limited edition, "the lists to be sent free to such Fellows of the Society as signify to the Secretary their wish to receive them, and also to all institutions with which an exchange of publications is maintained," has resulted in many institutions not having acquired the supplements. Institutions which would make an effort to fill any existing gap in their volumes of the *Geographical journal* have overlooked or ignored the *Journal's* important supplement since it ceased to be received automatically with the subscription to the *Journal*. The present index, referred to as the *Index to supplements*, does not include maps and photographs, but atlases are listed and all geographical literature except a few minor articles.

The *Index to supplements* contains approximately one hundred thousand entries. Each item has its author entry and one subject entry. The absence of title entries is of practically no importance because the kind of item indexed is, almost without exception, titled in such a specific manner that subject and title are synonymous. In the author entries the forenames have been given in full only when necessary to avoid confusion. Titles have been abbreviated to a bare minimum. Subject headings do not follow any certain pattern of division and subdivision but are included according to the particular demands of the individual subject and the number of entries under the heading.

Typographically the *Index to supplements* is superior to the indexes to the *Geographical journal*, for, while the *Fourth general index* to the *Geographical journal* was an improvement over the earlier *General index* to the *Geographical journal* in its employment of small capitals and italics instead of symbols for certain connotative values, it lost by substituting large capitals for boldface lower-case place names and in its employment of four indentions of varying significances—four indentions within the space of three-eighths of an inch. The resumption of Roman numerals for volume number seems desirable. The *Index to supplements* continues the Royal Geographical Society's practice of giving author, as well as title, under subject headings. Unfortunately, this is by no means an invariable rule with geographical indexing. The judicious revision and generous addition of subheadings under necessarily large heads is an improvement and further mitigates the loss suffered through short-title usage.

The inclusion of distinguishing symbols or typographical differentiation

would save endless labor for the searcher employing the *Index to supplements* as even a moderately selective implement. This was not so in the case of the earlier arrangement, when *Geographical literature of the month; additions to the library* was included in the body of the *Geographical journal*. The arrangement then was pleasantly simple, entailing a minimum of effort on the part of the user. Then, approaching from the subject "Ophir," and under this, alphabetically by title, "Gold of Ophir, whence brought and by whom? A. H. Keane, XIX.361§, 409, 495," the entry resolved itself into a rather full description: Volume XIX, reviewed or analyzed on page 361, a bibliographical entry in *Geographical literature of the month*, further information (in this instance a second review). Still another symbol signified a paper or long article in the *Geographical journal*. This was a satisfying form for the selective user. Those who are convinced that a good bibliography must have a peculiar spirit or character and that even an index must at least be in sympathy with the work it indexes, will delight in the marriage of the *Geographical journal* and its *General indexes*. This same sympathetic treatment is evidenced in the present *Index to supplements*.

An entry in the *Index to supplements* refers to the volume and page in the *Supplement*. In the case of a book which is reviewed in the *Geographical journal*, besides having been entered in the *Supplement*, there is no cross-reference or any indication that such a review exists, thus necessitating use of the indexes to the *Geographical journal*, which might well have been used in the first place, on the assumption that the really important works would, sooner or later, be reviewed.

The chronological arrangement of items under subject divisions is a distinct advantage when approaching from subject. The relatively small number of entries under each of these well-chosen subdivisions makes the sacrifice of the earlier alphabetical-by-title arrangement negligible. The two columns on each page are well separated, allowing each subdivision to present a small rectangle—sometimes a square, seldom more—of clear, well-led type which the eye may exploit at a glance. The entry "New J—: A. Bowen, IV. 154" readily resolves itself into "New Japan, by A. Bowen, 1932." The advantage of knowing a work to be the latest cited is obvious.

Under author in the *Index to supplements* are given the short title and the reference "IV. 154." On page 154 of this Volume IV of the *Supplement* there is an alphabetical arrangement by place; and to facilitate location of entry, the right margin offers in boldface type the surname of the author. The bibliographical entry is full, giving author, place, publisher, date, size (in inches), number of pages, and other information, in the case of the entry used here as an example, map and illustrations, the illustrator's name, price, and acquisition note.

The *Index to supplements* as a bibliographical tool when used in conjunction with *Bibliographie géographique internationale* is of infinite value. For in-

stance, if we wish to find recent material on the Hudson Bay region, the following steps may be taken: (1) *Index to supplements*, with its chronological arrangement under subject, offers "H—B—Region: F. H. Kitto, III. 322." as one of the most recent entries. (2) This leads to the *Supplement to the geographical journal* entry, "The Hudson Bay Region. By F. H. Kitto. Ottawa: Dept. of Interior, 1929. Size 9×8, pp. 50. *Illustrations and maps.*" This is all we find. But turning to the introductory note at the beginning of the *Index to supplements*, there will be found a relation list of "*Recent geographical literature*" and *B.G.I.* The annual index to *B.G.I.* makes the entry readily available and gives the added information, "Compte rendu, Scottish G. Mag., XLV, July 15, 1929, p. 235-237."

There still is no reason to question the continued validity of John Kirtland Wright's statement in his *Aids to geographical research* which claims that "one may test the value of any geographical bibliography by noting the extent and character of its references to periodicals as well as to books." The *Index to supplements* is a guide to much material that is still in periodical form only. The extent to which the *Index to supplements* covers periodical material is great; but before any opinion as to its relative value as a periodical index is formed, it would seem best to remember that over one-half of the geographical periodicals listed in Ulrich's *Periodicals directory* are indexed in one or more of ten periodical indexes, besides in most cases indexing themselves. A check of Ulrich's list will show that it includes about three-fourths of the periodicals stressed by Wright as being of particular importance; other lists bear this out.

Under "Geography," subdivision "Bibliography," Ulrich lists only six items. Four of these are among the five great repertories of current geographical bibliography offered by Wright. Ulrich's fifth is *Recent geographical literature, maps and photographs added to the society's collection* (*Supplement to: Geographical journal*). The *Supplement* deserves place along with such exalted company, and the *Index to supplements* is a welcome aid in using the *Supplements*.

The value of the *Index to supplements* to any institution already owning the *Supplement* is evident. To institutions possessing *B.G.I.* or kindred serials to which cumulated indexes have not been issued recently, the *Index to supplements* will prove valuable in proportion to their need of such material, their present geographical holdings, and the bibliographical aids in geography already possessed—not failing to remember the indexing done by works not exclusively devoted to geography. The entries in the *Index to supplements* are not full enough to allow for comprehensive quotation directly from its pages. Recourse must be had to some other work, preferably to the *Supplement* itself.

WILLIAM H. JESSE

Brown University Library
Providence, Rhode Island

Social work year book, 1939: a description of organized activities in social work and in related fields. Edited by RUSSELL H. KURTZ. 5th issue. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 730. \$3.50.

From the point of view of presenting a description of its intent and an outline of its scope, the reviewer of this work could do no better than present the Preface to this volume in its entirety. The opening paragraphs, for example, are as follows:

The Social Work Yearbook . . . undertakes to report the current status of "organized activities in social work and in related fields." It is, in effect, a concise encyclopedia in this general area. Each biennial issue is independent of the others, the present volume being the fifth to be published.

It will be noted that the volume is composed of three major sections. Part One consists of a group of 82 signed articles prepared by authorities on the topics discussed. Part Two, introduced for the first time in this issue, is a state-by-state description of the public assistance programs in effect in the 48 states. Part Three is a directory of national and state agencies, both public and voluntary, whose programs are integral with or related to the subject matter of parts One and Two. There is also an extensive Index.

In addition, to reassure anyone who may harbor doubts as to the breadth of usefulness of the work, the editor says:

The *Year book's* audience is envisaged as including not only social workers and practitioners in related fields but also publicists, students of the social sciences, legislators and public administrators, reference librarians and teachers, agency board members, and interested lay persons, whatever their connection with private or public social work. To the worker in a specialized field the articles should be helpful in providing current information concerning programs and activities in closely related areas. To the non-professional reader the volume will give a broad basis for a better understanding of the social programs which so persistently challenge attention.

In spite of the editor's having stolen so much of the reviewer's thunder in his Preface, there still remain a few things which can be said. It is both interesting and significant, for example, to note that the contributors of the topical articles are, for the most part, persons actively engaged in the fields concerning which they write. Thus, the book savors more of the laboratory and less of the academic cloister than is frequently the case with similar publications. The brief, up-to-date, and well-chosen bibliographies which accompany all but one of the articles are likewise worthy of note and should prove most useful to the harassed reference librarian. Since the contributors represent so large a number, it is only too obvious that there is considerable variation as to length, quality, and readability of the individual articles, though in general—and with the limitations of their objectives in mind—the standard is relatively high. The usefulness of the volume might be increased by a more analytic index, though even this is doubtful, since a number of tests applied by the present reviewer yielded uniformly satisfactory results.

In short, the book appears to accomplish admirably what it sets out to do, and its purchase can be heartily recommended to any institution or individual falling within the broad categories noted in the quotation from the Preface.

Before closing this commentary, however, the writer would like to exercise his prerogative of carping a bit by pointing out one significant omission. This is the absence of any real discussion of the library as a social agency. The only reference under "library" in the Index is to the legislative reference service of the Library of Congress. The only references to libraries found elsewhere in the book are the listing of the A.L.A. in the directory of agencies and very brief mentions of libraries under the articles on adult education and recreation.

We should, as a profession, one supposes, have achieved at least partial immunity to such slights by now. Such, however, is not the case. Each additional occurrence of this sort of thing aggravates the wound. So virulent, in fact, has the writer's personal psychosis become that he finds himself hastily thumbing the index of all such publications that come to his attention to see how he and his professional brethren have fared.

In the present instance the breach is especially striking because librarianship occupied its own niche in all of the volumes preceding that of 1937. Furthermore, it would seem, by virtue of the following sentence taken from the Preface of the book, that we still have every right to expect inclusion. Says Mr. Kurtz:

In determining what fields to consider "related" to social work for the purposes of this volume, the editor has sought to include (a) those whose practitioners share with social workers responsibility for a service to a common client or group of clients, and (b) those whose problems sharply impinge upon the area of social work practice and interest.

It is the writer's conviction, and probably that of most librarians, that the public library falls within both of these categories. Even the most skeptical will have to admit that at least we "share with social workers responsibility for a service to a common client or group of clients."

STEWART W. SMITH

Chicago, Illinois

BOOK NOTES

American women. The standard biographical dictionary of notable women, Vol. III: 1939-40. Edited by DURWARD HOWES. Los Angeles: American Publications, Inc., 1939. Pp. cliv+1083. \$10.

This third volume of *American women* brings to date the information recorded in the two previous volumes and also, according to Mr. Howes' Preface, contains 3,000 biographies which have appeared in no previous edition, thus bringing the total number of biographical sketches of notable women to 10,222. There are seven Forewords written, respectively, by Marjorie Hillis, Helen Keller, Mary G. Roebling, Helena Rubinstein, Norma Shearer, Althea Warren, and Bertine Weston; the statistical summary; Mr. Howes' annual list of America's feminine leaders; a sample questionnaire; a list of abbreviations used; the geographical index; the occupational index, necrology; 1,018 pages of biographies; and a section on "organizations." If here and there a prominent name is missing, Mr. Howes explains that the omission simply means that the person in question did not comply with the request for biographical information.

Research materials in the social sciences: an annotated guide for graduate students. Compiled by LOUIS KAPLAN. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1939. Pp. 36. \$0.60.

This small compilation gives a select list of bibliographies, indexes, and other aids which may be of use to research students in the social sciences. Items relevant only to a single field of the social sciences are excluded. The arrangement is by type of aid: guides to research method, indexes to serials and government documents, guides to lists of serials, bibliographies (general, and social science), miscellaneous aids (book-review indexes, encyclopedias, biographical sets, statistics, handbooks, and atlases), and guides to the resources of American libraries.

The listings (177 in number, not excluding a few duplications under separate headings) indicate period of issue and cumulation as well as the status of partly published works in progress. Excellent brief annotations suggest coverage, emphasis, and arrangement of the items listed, and occasionally include suggestions for use of items or evaluatory comment. There is an index arranged by title and author.

Though leaving the social science research student without direction to guides in his special field, it performs well its stated purposes.

Union list of scientific periodicals in the chemical libraries of the Chemistry Section, Science-Technology Group of the Special Libraries Association. Revised by BETTY JOY COLE. 2d. ed. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1939. Pp. 77. \$2.50.

In 1935 the Chemistry Section of the Special Libraries Association compiled the first edition of this *Union list*. The second edition is expanded as well as revised, for twenty more libraries are listed than were listed in the earlier volume. Among the sixty-nine collections represented are those of colleges, privately maintained institutions—such as Mellon and Battelle—and many industrial concerns. About one thousand titles of periodicals used by workers in the fields of biology, chemistry, engineering, mathematics, medicine, and physics are included.

By means of a carefully worked out code of abbreviations and symbols the list shows at a glance not only in which of the co-operating libraries a journal is to be found but,

what is more important, for what years it is available in each collection. Short runs of three years or less are listed if the publication is available only in one or two libraries. The initials representing the co-operating libraries are chosen so as to be associated easily with their names.

In printed form the revised edition of this *Union list* is less bulky than its mimeographed predecessor. With its greater contents it should be found even more useful in the making of interlibrary loans.

The world over: 1938. A chronological and interpretive survey of the year of tension. Edited by JOSEPH HILTON SMYTH and CHARLES ANGOFF. New York: Harrison-Hilton Books, Inc. Pp. [iv]+590. \$4.00.

The editors of this survey of the news of 1938 propose that it shall be the first issue of an annual chronology of world-events. The first half of the volume is devoted to "Commentary," the last half to "Chronology." Within each, the months form chapters which, in turn, are divided into sections devoted to nations or regions. The commentaries, from a paragraph to several pages in length, describe in narrative fashion the principal events of the month in each nation. By emphasis, by relating events to each other, and by quotation and paraphrase of words of political leaders, the compilers give brief interpretive pictures of the trend of events and of mind. The chronologies consist of two- or three-line descriptions of the events of the day. Thus one may learn in the chronology of Great Britain for March that on the eighth of that month U.S. Ambassador Kennedy presented his credentials to the King, the Commons approved Chamberlain's defense program, and a certain undersecretary assured Parliament the press would remain free. Throughout, the events chronicled are almost exclusively those of national and international politics. There is an index to the commentaries but not to the chronologies.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the office of the *Library quarterly*:

- Actas y Trabajos del 11 Congreso Internacional de Bibliotecas y Bibliografía, Madrid-Barcelona 20-30 de Mayo de 1935.* Vol. III: *Bibliotecas Populares.* Madrid: Libreria de Julian Barbazan, 1936. Pp. 439.
- American librarianship from a European angle: an attempt at an evaluation of policies and activities.* By WILHELM MUNTHE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xiii+191. \$2.00.
- American Shakespearean criticism, 1607-1865.* By ALFRED VAN RENSSELAER WESTFALL. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xii+305. \$2.75.
- Bibliographical description and cataloguing.* By J. D. COWLEY. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. xi+256. 12s. 6d. net.
- A bibliographical guide to the romance languages and literatures.* Compiled by THOMAS ROSSMAN PALFREY, JOSEPH GUERIN FUCILLA, WILLIAM COLLAR HOLBROOK. Evanston, Ill.: Chandler's, 1939. Pp. ix+82.
- A bibliography of dancing: a list of books and articles on the dance and related subjects. Second cumulated supplement 1936-38.* Compiled by PAUL DAVID MAGRIEL. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 62. \$1.15.
- Bibliothèques agricoles dans le monde et bibliothèques spécialisées dans les sujets se rapportant à l'agriculture.* ("Institut international d'agriculture.") Rome: Villa Umberto I, 1939. Pp. [xx]+311.
- The book in America: a history of the making, the selling, and the collecting of books in the United States.* By HELLMUT LEHMANN-HAUPT; in collaboration with RUTH SHEPARD GRANNISS and LAWRENCE C. WROTH. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1939. Pp. xiii+453.
- Booklist books, 1938: selected by the vote of many librarians and compiled by the Staff of the Booklist.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 64. \$0.75; ten or more copies, \$0.65 each.
- The cinema: historical, technical and bibliographical. A survey for librarians and students.* By M. JACKSON-WRIGLEY and ERIC LEYLAND; with an Introduction by WILLIAM ARMSTRONG. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. xiii+198. 12s. 6d. net.
- College and university library buildings.* By EDNA RUTH HANLEY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 152. \$4.50.
- Colon classification, Part I: Rules of classification, Part II: Schedules of classification, Part III: Index to the schedules, Part IV: Examples of call numbers.* 2d ed. rev. ("Madras Library Association publication series," No. 8.) Madras: Madras Library Association, 1939. Pp. 764.

- Congresses: tentative chronological and bibliographical reference list of national and international meetings of physicians, scientists, and experts.* 2d suppl. 4th ser. *Index-Catalogue United States Army (Army Medical Library).* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. 288.
- A course in methods for the small library: prepared especially for adults.* By RUTH LONG SIEFKES and C. K. MORSE. ("Life enrichment correspondence study series for adults.") Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska Extension Division, 1937. Pp. [viii]+142+xv (mimeographed).
- Descriptive catalog of the Garrett Collection of Arabic Manuscripts in the Princeton University Library.* By PHILIP K. HITTI, NABIH AMIN FARIS, BUTRUS 'ABD-AL-MALIK. ("Princeton Oriental texts," Vol. V.) Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1938. Pp. xii+668+xxiii+[60].
- The face of England and Wales.* ("Readers' guide," No. 23.) London: Library Association, County Libraries Section, 1939. Pp. 28.
- Geschiedenis der Koninklijke Bibliotheek.* Door L. BRUMMEL. Leiden: A. W. Sijthoff, 1939. Pp. x+215.
- Guide to depositories of manuscript collections in the United States: one hundred sample entries.* Prepared by HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY DIVISION OF WOMEN'S AND PROFESSIONAL PROJECTS, WORKS PROGRESS ADMINISTRATION. Columbus, Ohio: Historical Records Survey, 1938. Pp. [ii]+134.
- Handbook of commercial and financial services.* Compiled by NATIONAL FINANCIAL GROUP; DOROTHY AVERY, chairman of Revision Committee. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1939. Pp. 70. \$2.00.
- Helping adults to learn: the library in action.* Edited by JOHN CHANCELLOR. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xi+296. \$3.00.
- A history of cataloguing and cataloguing methods, 1100-1850: with an introductory survey of ancient times. A thesis accepted for the Honours Diploma of the Library Association.* By DOROTHY MAY NORRIS; with a Foreword by H. M. CASHMORE. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. ix+246. 10s. 6d. net.
- Internationale Bibliographie des Buch- und Bibliothekswesens, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Bibliographie, Dreizehnter Jahrgang 1938.* In kritischer Auswahl zusammengestellt von JORIS VORSTIUS und GERHARD REINCKE. Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1939. Pp. xii+438.
- James Duff Brown, subject classification for the arrangement of libraries and the organization of information: with tables, indexes, etc., for the subdivision of subjects.* 3d ed. rev. and enl. By JAMES D. STEWART. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. 565. 30s. net.
- Materials on the Pacific area in the Oriental Library of Claremont Colleges Library and in the libraries of Pomona College and Scripps College, Claremont, California: issued under the auspices of Institute of Pacific Relations, American Council Southern California Division as a preliminary checklist for union list of materials on the Pacific area in selected libraries of Los Angeles*

- area. Compiled and issued by CLAREMONT COLLEGES LIBRARY, Claremont, Calif., July 15, 1939. Pp. 141 (mimeographed). \$1.50.
- Matrimonial shoals.* By ROYAL D. ROOD. Detroit, Mich.: Detroit Law Book Co., 1939. Pp. xii+424. \$3.50.
- The medieval library.* By JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Pp. viii+682. \$5.00.
- "No more books": *the New York Public Library in 1938.* New York: New York Public Library, 1939. Pp. 30. For free distribution.
- [Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction bulletins.] *Official forms in use (a bibliography).* ("Bulletin," No. 8.) *Institutions of higher learning in relation to a state program of teacher education.* ("Bulletin," No. 156.) *Home classes for foreign-born mothers.* ("Bulletin," No. 295.) *Creative hands and purposeful activities in the elementary school: an industrial arts bulletin.* ("Bulletin," No. 333.) *Quantitative aspects of experiencing in the elementary school.* ("Bulletin," No. 360.) *Meeting the needs of the mentally retarded.* ("Bulletin," No. 420.) By LESTER K. ADE. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1939. Pp. 25, 29, 75, 61, vii+221, ix+158, respectively.
- Personnel administration in public libraries.* By CLARA W. HERBERT; with a chapter by ALTHEA H. WARREN and LORA A. RODEN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xiv+190. \$2.25.
- Public library lighting*, Vol. II: *Artificial lighting*, Part I: *General principles and planning.* By R. D. HILTON SMITH. ("The librarian series of practical manuals," XIII.) Gravesend: Alex. J. Philip, 1938. Pp. 95. \$1.75 (through H. W. Wilson).
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